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ABSTRACT

Containing selections from the 1987 and 1988 annual meetings of the North Central Reading Association, this yearbook includes sections on research; reviews of research; professional issues; and program descriptions. Papers include: "The Effects of a Secondary Reading Methods Course on Undergraduate Students' Awareness of Reading Skills" (Bruce A. Lloyd and Concetta Gould); "High School Teachers' Awareness of the Reading Skills of Other Students" (Bruce A. Lloyd); "The Reading/Writing Lab at Kirtland: 10 Different Courses, 11 Different Times" (Sharon Hammond); "What Happens to People Who Cannot Read? The Problem of Illiteracy" (Mark E. Thompson); "What Happens When Readers Do Not Read? The Problem of Reluctant Readers" (Mark E. Thompson); "Questioning Techniques for Teachers: Teaching Reading, Thinking, and Listening Skills" (Kelly Hoxmeier); "Motivation of Students and Teacher" (Kelly Hoxmeier); "Using the Nelson-Denny to Measure the Effectiveness of Sixteen Textbooks" (Donald Goodman and Carol Neal); "Collaborative Learning in Higher Education" (Gloria Goris Stronks); "Data Collection in the College Reading Course" (Jan Dursky); "The Three R's in Learning Support Center" (Patricia Kirkpatrick and others); and "Army Subsidizes Improvement in the 3R's" (Tanya Pitzer and Deborah Steward). (RS)

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College and Adult Reading
Volume XIV

North Central Reading Association
1988 Yearbook

Edited by

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Dedication

This XIVth Yearbook is respectfully dedicated to the memory of:

PROFESSOR FREDRICK DAVIS

January 20, 1917-May 27, 1986

Kent State University

**loyal friend,
esteemed colleague,
and dedicated board member
of the
North Central Reading Association**

**by
The Board of Directors**

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Preface

This 14th Yearbook of the North Central Reading Association contains a selection of papers presented at the the 28th and 29th Annual Conferences held at Notre Dame University, South Bend, Inidiana in October, 1987 and 1988 respectively.

The Association is especially indebted to Dale Brethower and Donald Goodman for serving as program chairmen for these conferences, and to Dick Willemin and Sandra Harmatiuk for handling the conference arrangements at Notre Dame. The hard work and dedication of these persons provided all in attendance with stimulating and challenging programs.

Because of the commitment of the membership and the board of directors, the annual conferences still retain their traditional character of cordiality, informality, camaraderie, and enthusiastic professional give and take.

The effectiveness of these conferences is very dependent on the presenters; therefore, a very special thanks is extended to all whose papers made these meetings so worthwhile. It is a pleasure to be able to extend the audience for these presentations as far as possible through inclusion in this yearbook.

The board extends congratulations to new members elected at its1986 and 1987 fall meetings. The new board members are Kay E. Fisher, Simpson College; Janice Dursky, Missouri Southern State

College; Sandra Harmatuik, Notre Dame; and Evelyn Davis, Kent State.

With this yearbook Kay E. Fisher assumes editorial responsibilities with Joseph A. Fisher. At the fall, 1986 board meeting she was named co-editor of the yearbook.

The Editors wish to thank Mrs. Charlotte Edwards for her dedicated preparation of this manuscript. They also wish to thank Simpson College and Drake University for granting them the time and facilities required to complete the project.

Joseph A. Fisher
Kay E. Fisher

Fourteenth NCRA Yearbook

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The Effects of a Secondary Reading Methods Course on Undergradate Students' Awareness of Reading Skills

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and
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Abstract

The level of awareness on the part of secondary teachers of the reading skills of their students has prompted a study of the effect of including reading methods courses in the professional curriculum of secondary teachers Professor Lloyd has studied the impact of such training on the opinions of secondary teachers about the reading skills needs of their students.

Subject matter specialists are the best persons to teach students the reading skills unique to the various content areas (Shepherd, 1982). Many secondary teachers are aware of this opportunity and responsibility; others are not, so efforts are underway to help them all believe in the need for teaching reading skills in their special subjects, (Roe, et al., 1987). Activities such as inservice workshops and formal courses in reading are valuable for practicing teachers because these experiences do succeed in changing high school teachers' attitudes about the need for teaching reading skills (O'Rourke, 1980; Stieglitz, 1983; and Patberg, et al., 1984).

But what about the preservice educator? The teacher-in-training now is usually required to take at least one undergraduate reading methods course for certification. The rationale is that such a course will help preservice educators become aware of the need for teaching reading skills. Will it? Welle (1981) says "yes." She used the Vaughan Scale (1977) to measure preservice teachers' (her students) opinions about the value of her reading methods courses. Over a three year period her students expressed positive views about the need for teaching reading skills. Christiansen (1986), using his own questionnaire, reports positive results from his research. His students were in favor of the reading course requirement and thought themselves to be well prepared to teach reading skills to their students.

Our students are required to take a reading methods course for certification at the secondary level. We were concerned about the impact of that course on their attitudes regarding the need for teaching reading skills to their students. In previous years of teaching, we sensed an initial reluctance/hostility on the part of our secondary education majors who were required to take the course. Attitudes seemed to change and become more positive as the course progressed, but there was no objective measure of attitudes until now. Last year, with a small grant from the College of Education, we were able to initiate our study and measure the change.

The purpose of the study was to discover if our students' opinions about the need for teaching reading

skills changed significantly after having had the course. The duration of the study was for one academic year (two semesters) and utilized six class sections (three each semester). The data gathering instrument was from Vaughan (as amended) using a Likert scale ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree. This can be seen in the accompanying sample survey.

At the beginning of each semester, on the first day of class, before the course outline was distributed, all of our students were given a copy of the Vaughan Scale as amended and told to fill it out anonymously. These papers were then collected, coded by course meeting day and time, responses quantified, and treated for means and standard deviations. This process was repeated on the last day of class at the end of the semester. The significance of differences between means (pre/post survey) was calculated for each of the six classes, then for the three fall classes as a group and the three winter classes as a group. Finally, all groups were combined and treated for pre-post survey significance. These data are reported in the accompanying table.

This table contains the fifteen statements in the Vaughan Scale as well as pre/post survey means, t values, and significant of the differences between means. An examination of the table reveals significant changes in the pre-service teachers' opinions for most of the pre and post statements in the survey. After the course, these students believed that they should help their students improve their reading ability, preteach technical vocabulary, teach study skills, help their

students think on an interpretive level, set purposes for reading, and be familiar with the theoretical processes of reading.

A further examination of the table reveals no significant changes of opinion regarding the primary responsibility of the content teacher. Participants in the study had no strong feelings of loyalty to their content area vis-a-vis reading instruction. This was not entirely unexpected because the course was/is designed to explain to these preservice educators how to teach reading skills concurrently with their subjects. The one is the base for the other so students were not forced to make a choice between their content specialty and reading skills.

And finally, their opinions about the statement that reading instruction in secondary schools is a waste of time, was enlightening and heartening. They entered the course feeling that such instruction is valuable and did not change their opinions at the end of the course.

The purpose of this study was to discover if our preservice educators would change their opinions about the need for teaching reading skills to their students after they, themselves participated in the undergraduate reading methods course offered on campus. From the responses of the participants, it would seem that the course made significant changes in their thinking and helped them become more aware than ever of the need for teaching reading skills. For this we are indeed gratified. However, there is no room for complacency because, as Ratekin, et al.,

(1985), Patberg, et al., (1984), and Stieglitz (1983) have written, changing teachers' attitudes and knowledge about reading in subject matter areas is no guarantee that those procedures will be taught in the classroom. That which does take place as classroom practice in content areas is a topic for further research.

Teaching Reading Opinion Survey

It is important for you to express your opinion about the concepts noted in the questions/statements that follow. Your responses can be guides to future goals in secondary education and reading instruction.

Kindly use the following scale ranging from 0 (complete disagreement) to 10 (complete agreement). The mid-point of 5 means no opinion. If you strongly agree, mark the appropriate number (6-10) or disagree (mark 0-4) and if you are undecided, mark 5.

0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

1. A content area teacher is obliged to help students improve their reading ability. _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _
2. Technical vocabulary should be introduced to students in content classes before they meet those terms in a reading passage. _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _
3. The primary responsibility of a content teacher should be to _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _

impart subject matter knowledge.

4. Few students can learn all they need to know about how to read in six years of schooling. _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _
5. The sole responsibility for teaching students how to study should lie with reading teachers. _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _
6. Knowing how to teach reading in content areas should be required for secondary teaching certification. _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _
7. Only English teachers should be responsible for teaching reading in secondary schools. _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _
8. A teacher who wants to improve students' interest in reading should show them that he or she likes to read. _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _
9. Content teachers should teach content and leave reading instruction to reading teachers. _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _
10. A content area teacher should be responsible for helping students think on an interpretive level as well as a literal level when they read. _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _

11. Content area teachers should feel a greater responsibility to the content they teach than to any reading instruction they may be able to provide. _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _

12. Content area teachers should help students learn to set purposes for reading. _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _

13. Every content area teacher should teach students how to read material in his or her content specialty. _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _

14. Reading instruction in secondary schools is a waste of time. _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _

15. Content area teachers should be familiar with theoretical concepts of the reading process. _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _

Have you taken a reading methods course?_____
What is your major field of preparation?_____
What subject(s) do you teach?_____

This questionnaire has been adapted from: Vaughan, Joseph., "A Scale to Measure Attitudes Toward Teaching Reading in Content Classroom." Journal of Reading, 20:605-609, April, 1977.

Table I

Pre Test/Post Test Means, t Values, and Significance of Differences Between Means for all Groups (A-B-C-D-E-F) Combined Pre-service Teachers' Opinions About the Need for Teaching Reading Skills to High School Students as Measured by the Vaughan Scale

N=182 N=171value of Difference

STATEMENT	MEANS			
(Adapted from Vaughan Scale)[1]	pre	post	t	Significance
1. A content area teacher is obliged to help students improve their reading ability.	7.59	8.91	7.87	.000**
2. Technical vocabulary should be introduced to students in content classes before they meet those terms in a reading passage.	7.40	9.24	9.46	.000**
3. The primary responsibility of a content teacher should be to impart subject matter knowledge.	6.94	7.42	1.88	.060
4. Few students can learn all they need to know about how to read in six years of schooling.	5.90	7.52	4.63	.000**

5. The sole responsibility for teaching students how to study should lie with reading teachers	2.56	1.65	3.48	.001**
6. Knowing how to teach reading in content areas should be required for secondary teaching certification.	7.20	8.02	4.28	.000**
7.Only English teachers should be responsible for teaching reading in secondary schools.	2.67	1.52	4.31	.000**
8.A teacher who wants to improve students' interest in reading should show them that he or she likes to read.	7.54	8.35	3.56	.000**
9.Content teachers should teach content and leave reading instruction to reading teachers.	2.95	1.57	5.32	.000**
10A content area teacher should be responsible for helping students think on an interpretive level as well as a literal level when they read.	8.18	9.09	6.00	.000**
11. Content area teachers should feel a greater responsibility to the content they teach than to any reading instruction they may be able to	5.78	5.49	0.99	.323

provide.				
12.Content area teachers should help students learn to set purposes for reading.	7.34	8.73	8.22	.000**
13.Every content area teacher should teach students how to read material in his or her content specialty.	7.32	9.02	8.97	.000**
14. Reading instruction in secondary schools is a waste of time.	0.82	0.57	1.53	.127
15.Content area teachers should be familiar with theoretical concepts of the reading process.	7.85	8.36	2.67	.008**

significant @p .05
**significant @p .01

1Joseph L. Vaughan, "A Scale to Measure Attitude Toward Teaching Reading in Content Classrooms." Journal of Reading, 20:605-609, April, 1977.

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High School Teachers' Awareness of the Reading Skills of Other Students

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Abstract

With the present emphasis on better reading for students in grade levels K-12, teachers are expected to know about the reading skills their students need. For most secondary teachers, however this is a substantial change and raises up the question how much content teachers know about the reading skills needed by their students. Reading leads to subject mastery, but do secondary teachers know which reading skills their students need? Literature on this phase of education is sparse, and the present study was undertaken to partially fill the information void. A survey instrument, specially designed for the study, was used to gather information. Open ended questions focused on learning if secondary teachers could list the skills required of students to (1) understand the text materials, (2) comprehend vocabulary, and (3) pronounce words.

Reading is a major method of communication and a process by which most learning takes place. Reading is especially important at the high school level because it is through print materials that students gain most of the information about the subjects they are studying. However, many students do not read as well as they should and often experience great difficulty in attempting to read the assigned texts. Because this situation is so wide spread some sort of corrective action is needed. The best way to achieve this is through appropriate help from their various teachers. Many reading authorities recommend that content

teachers teach the reading skills needed in their disciplines so that students can learn better from the medium of print. The subject matter specialist who is an expert in a given field, is actually in the best position to teach these reading skills. The subject teachers understand what is important in a field and are best able to focus on the key elements of the content.

The focal question of this study is this: "Can high school teachers list the reading skills their students must use to read their texts?" How to do this or the ways in which secondary teachers can teach reading skills to their students is the subject of many reading methods texts and beyond the scope of this paper. What is of concern here is the degree to which content teachers are aware of the reading skills that students must use in understanding their textbooks.

It seems reasonable to assume that if secondary teachers can describe or list the reading skills needed by their students, there is a greater likelihood that these skills are being taught. However, if teachers are not aware of the reading skills their students need, chances are that the skills are not being taught and their students suffer the consequences. The task of the present study was to find out if high school teachers could describe in writing the reading skills needed by their students their respective texts, understand the vocabulary and apply word analysis skills as they read in content areas.

Teachers' responses would indicate their present store of information about reading and could

suggest appropriate inservice educational programs. The results of such inservice activities, relating directly to teacher needs, could substantially improve classroom teaching and student learning. In the end, students could become much more knowledgeable in their pursuit of learning and more responsible as citizens contributing to society as a whole.

Review of Related Literature. Studies that focus on this topic are far from numerous. In what may be the first such study Braam and Roehm (1964) sampled teachers' knowledge of reading skills through a survey containing three questions related to reading skills:

1. Which specific reading skills do you consider most necessary for your students in order for them to read the materials used in your subject area?
2. Which reading skills are your students best able to apply to the reading material in your subject?
3. In which reading skills are your students most deficient?

Teachers' responses showed that critical reading, vocabulary, study skills and reading rate were most necessary for students. However, many respondents were not only unaware of the skills needed by their students, but they did not know which skills students could best apply. Moreover, many did not know the skills in which students were deficient. In replicating the study nearly a decade later, Braam and Walker (1973) drew similar conclusions. In that study, the same questions were asked and it seems that content teachers are still more aware of students'

reading deficiencies than strengths. Those responding were generally unfamiliar with reading skills. The authors observed that communication between reading experts and secondary classroom teachers is no more effective now than before.

Lloyd (1986) replicated the Braam and Walker study, administering the questionnaire to seventy-six graduate students teaching at the secondary level. He concluded that, for the sample population responding, these teachers believed comprehension was the most important skill needed by their students. Next came vocabulary. Word analysis was the third most numerous response. Moreover, the reading skills most needed by their students seem to be the skills in which the students are most deficient and this finding supports that of Braam and Walker. It is noteworthy that thirty-seven (37) per cent of the respondents did not know which reading skills their students were best able to apply.

Frager (1984) investigated the accuracy of content teachers' judgements about the reading abilities of secondary students. He explored the relationship between the various types of information that teachers use in making such judgements. Among the sample there were 31 English and 22 social studies teachers. The judgmental factors included oral reading, study skills, vocabulary knowledge, comprehension skills, and physical/attitudinal elements. No significant relationships were found between types of information read and judgments of reading abilities. It should be noted that teachers were

not asked to list the various reading skills. The skills were presented as criteria reference factors.

The Data Gathering Instrument. The first step in this phase of the study was to design a suitable new questionnaire, one that would elicit appropriate teacher responses without divulging correct answers. One pitfall that Braam and Walker encountered was that of interpreting responses. Walker, in personal correspondence to this writer related that their study not only should be repeated, but the questions asked should be more specific. He explained that a survey to educe information about secondary teachers' awareness of reading skills should be worded so there would be less chance of misinterpreting the intent of teachers' responses.

A replication of the Braam and Walker study, as reported by Lloyd (1986), generated information that was useful in forming appropriate open-ended questions for the new survey instrument. For this new instrument, it was decided that, because there are three major reading skills clusters, comprehension, vocabulary , and word analysis (Lloyd, 1986), one question for each should be included in it. To determine teacher knowledge about reading comprehension skills, this question was asked: "What must your students do to understand what they read?" To determine their knowledge of vocabulary skills, this question was asked: "What must students do to comprehend the meanings of the words they read?" To find out about their knowledge of word attack skills, teachers were asked, "What skills are needed so your students can correctly pronounce words?"

Validation. The original questionnaire used by Braam and Walker (1973) and then by Lloyd (1986) was redesigned for the present study. The changes that were made followed the pattern recommended by several measurement experts and focused on the development of a suitable information gathering format. This research was supported by a small grant from the College of Education at Western Michigan University.

The next step involved validating the survey instrument. This was accomplished by first determining the purpose for which the survey was designed and then going on to meet other validation criteria. As previously noted, content teachers were to indicate their awareness of reading skills by responding to questions about reading comprehension, vocabulary knowledge, and word attack skills. The validity of a questionnaire is concerned with whether or not it actually produces the information requested or intended. Therefore, those who respond to the survey must understand the questions asked in the same way as those who designed the survey (Berdie and Anderson, p. 13). So, "Precision in this sense is generally termed validity and is measured by comparing the responses with known facts. Unfortunately, if the facts are already known there is no point in asking questions, ..." (Berdie and Anderson, p. 12).

According to Carmines and Zeller (1979), "In a very general sense, any measuring device is valid if it does what it is intended to do." (p. 12). Moreover, "...validity concerns the crucial relationship between

concept and indicator ... one does not assess the validity of an indicator but rather the use to which it is being put." (p. 12).

The next step was to administer the amended Braam and Walker survey to a group of 17experienced content teachers and then analyze their responses. These discussions were recorded and their comments synthesized, then repeated to them for accuracy of interpretation. Subsequently the revised questionnaire was readministered. Discussion continues until everyone seemed satisfied with the results. These changes were incorporated into the final version used. Through this process the questionnaire was validated and content and construct validity (Salvia and Ysseldyke, 1978) were assured.

Data Collection, Treatment, and Findings. Data are from a middle school and high school.

The high school had over of fifty teachers, thirty-seven of whom submitted usable surveys. Seventeen17 were female and 20 were male. Their teaching experience ranged from 1 to 36 years and many taught more than one subject. Nine taught English, eight taught mathematics, six business, five social studies, four science, three reading, and two music.

Thirteen of the respondents had taken an undergraduate reading methods course; 24 had not. Nine had taken a graduate level reading methods course; 28 had not. Eight had participated in some form of reading inservice programs; 29 had not.

Seven had other background experiences related to reading; 30 had not.

Responses to question 1, "What must students do to understand what they read?" are as follows: (many teachers marked several items)

a. Concentrate/focus on and think about reading	10
b. Relate reading to experiential	8
c. Know how to read for main ideas	8
d. Have a large vocabulary	7
e. Read more	7
f. Have the ability to guess (anticipate) what the material is about	2
g. Use the dictionary	2
h. Discuss the material	2
i. Use decoding skills	2
j. Have a basic understanding of the language	1
k. Avoid reading word-for-word	1
l. Write about the material they read	1
m. Survey the material	1
n. Teachers should use relevant material	1
o. Teachers should know students' reading levels	1
p. Students should be taught how to read in earlier grades	1
q. Do not know	8

These are the responses to question 2, "What must students do to comprehend the meanings of the words they read?"

a. Use context clues	9
b. Use the dictionary	8

c. Have a good vocabulary	7
d. Relate reading to their experiences	6
e. Know word analysis skills	5
f. Read (more)	3
g. Use words in communication	3
h. Have vocabulary drills	1
i. Anticipate word meanings	1
j. Keep a vocabulary notebook	
k. Think about their reading	
l. Read for main ideas	1
m. Gear material to students' reading level	1
n. Do not skip small words in sentences	1
o. Do not know	8

These are the responses to question 3, "What skills are needed so your students can correctly pronounce words?"

a. Know word attack skills	22
phonic analysis	15
structural analysis	7
b. Use the pronunciation key	4
c. Know how to listen (hear)	4
d. Teachers should set a good example	4
e. Know spelling skills	2
f. Practice	2
g. Possess large sight vocabulary	2
h. Language experience	1
i. Have self-confidence	1
j. Have a good memory	1
k. Know the basic English skills	1
l. Visual discrimination	1
m. Sequencing	1
n. Smaller elementary classes	1

o. Teachers should know how to teach reading skills no matter what subject they teach 1
p. Do not know 10

The middle school had 45 teachers and 35 of them submitted usable surveys. There were 19 female and 16 male respondents. They ranged in teaching experience from one year to 26 years. There were eight English teachers, seven mathematics teachers, four business teachers, and several science, social studies, shop, and physical education/health, teachers with dual appointments.

Nineteen of the respondents had taken an undergraduate reading methods course; 16 had not. Ten had taken a graduate level reading methods course; 25 had not. Eight had participated in some form of reading inservice programs; 27 had not.

Their responses to question 1, "What must your students do to understand what they read?" are as follows: (many teachers answered more than one item)

a. Know vocabulary and word meanings 25
b. Understand context 12
c. Concentrate on reading (think about it) 7
d. Decode, recognize, pronounce words 4
e. Have a desire (like to) read 4
f. Use their own background (schema) 4
g. Read to answer questions 3
h. Take notes 1

i. Know how to summarize 1
j. Have materials reinforced 1
k. Have a proper learning environment 1
l. Read at the level of the material 1
m. Anticipate content 1
n. Do not know 2

Responses to question 2, "What must students do to comprehend the meanings of the words they read?" are as follows:

a. Use context clues 12
b. Use the dictionary 10
c. Use word analysis/attack skills 7
d. Develop a larger reading vocabulary 6
e. Use personal background (schema) 4
f. Ask the teacher for help 3
g. Practice/Drill 2
h. Use picture symbols for the words 1
i. Work on study skills 1
j. Do not know 1

Responses to question 3, "What skills are needed so your students can correctly pronounce words?" are as follows:

a. Learn decoding skills: phonics/structural analysis 26
b. Learn to use the dictionary and glossary 7
c. Learn to listen effectively 3
d. Use context clues 3
e. Read more 2
f. Develop a large sight vocabulary 1
g. Read aloud 1
h. Take practice quizzes 1

i. Do not know 6

The data gathered at this point in the study reveal that, for these middle school and high school teachers, there is at once concurrence and disparity in survey responses. From the limited sample it can be concluded that high school teachers believe students should think more about what they read, relate reading to their own experiential background and read for main ideas if they are to understand what they read. Middle school teachers overwhelmingly supported the skill of vocabulary knowledge/word meaning. They also favored the skill of understanding context and rated the act of thinking about what is read as a third choice.

The high school teachers thought that students should use context clues, dictionaries, and possess a good vocabulary in order to comprehend the meanings of words read. Middle school teachers also believed it necessary to use context clues, dictionaries, and have a good vocabulary, but these teachers recommended word analysis/attack skills in response to this question.

As for the question about skills in word pronunciation, the high school teachers and middle school teachers noted word attack (decoding) skills as their first choice. Use of the dictionary/pronunciation key was a second recommendation and learning to listen better was their third choice. Both groups of teachers were most similar in responses to this question. They were least similar in their responses to the question about students' understanding of what they read.

One must be cautious in drawing conclusions from these limited data, yet it would appear the high school teachers are less aware of the reading skills their students need to understand what they read than are the middle school teachers.

As more data are gathered and treated, comparisons will be made in relation to teacher responses by subject area, number of years in teaching, and reading courses attended or taken. Once the process is completed, patterns of thinking are expected to be revealed that will lead to effective inservice program planning for all concerned.

Western Michigan University
READING RESOURCES CENTER
Secondary Teachers'
SURVEY
of
High School Students' Reading Skills

This survey is expected to help educators design effective inservice educational programs for secondary teachers. Please respond openly and candidly. All information is confidential. No one will know how you responded.

Also, if you do not know the answers, reply according (UK=unknown). A "don't know" is important because it also gives us usable information.

With the current focus on high school reading, it is crucial that we find out what secondary teachers know and do not know about reading skills. This information is vital because it will provide:

1. focus/content in READING METHODS COURSES for our students.
2. guidelines to EFFECTIVE INSERVICE PROGRAMS for secondary teachers.

Please note that there are more questions on the back of this page. However, the survey takes only 7-8 minutes to complete.

1. Female ____ / Male ____
2. Years of teaching ____
3. Which subject(s) do you teach or have you taught in the last 3 years?

4. As an undergraduate student, did you take a reading method course (or courses)?
   Yes ____ / No ____ . If yes, how many?
5. Have you had a graduate level reading methods course (or courses)?
   Yes ____ / No ____ . If yes, how many?____
6. Have you participated in inservice programs (conferences, workshops, etc.) on teaching reading in the content/subject areas during the past 3 years?
   Yes ____ / No ____ . If yes, please list them.___
7. Do you have other background experiences related to teaching reading?
   Yes ____ / No ____ . If yes, please note --
8. What must students do to understand what they read?
9. What must students do to comprehend the meanings of the words they read?
10. What skills are needed so your students can correctly pronounce words?

Thank you for your cooperation in helping us gather information for this important study. This questionnaire was adapted from Leonard S. Braam and James E. Walker, "Subject Teachers' Awareness of Reading Skills," Journal of Reading, 16:608-611, May, 1973 and revised with the assistance of Cynthia Halderson. DAHF.

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The Reading/Writing Lab at Kirtland: 10 Different Courses, 11 Different Times

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Abstract

Our developmental program was designed to meet the special needs of underprepared and non-traditional students in our small community college. It allows students to work independently in a lab situation on any of ten different courses, which are offered concurrently at eleven different times. In addition to spelling and study skills, we offer vocabulary at two levels, reading at four levels, and a developmental writing course composed of three one-credit-hour units. Depending upon the student's ability and available time, he may complete one, two, or all three units during the course of a semester. Because the course is competency based, the student need never fail. Alternate test forms and paper assignments are available as needed to allow a student to meet the established criteria. This paper briefly discusses the scope of courses offered in the lab and then focuses on Fundamentals of English, the developmental writing course.

Running a reading/writing lab in a small, rural community college can certainly be a challenge--not only because of the inherent physical limitations, but also because of the special needs of non-traditional students.

To begin with, we face certain physical limitations, primarily money, staff, and room.

Our physical layout is a single classroom with a small conference room off one side of it. The conference room stores supplies (cassettes and players, computer software, tests and handouts) and has a couple tables where the instructor can work one-on-one with students. The classroom is divided into four work areas with six computers lining one wall, counters with two additional computers and power strips for cassette players lining two other walls, and four tables for testing running perpendicular to a fourth wall. In the center are eight study carrels, which serve to separate the work areas somewhat, as well as to provide space for quiet study. Our staff consists of one full-time instructor, one part-time instructor, one part-time paraprofessional, and one part-time student aide. Approximately 200 students take courses equalling about 450 credit hours in the lab each semester.

The average age of our students is 31. Many are single parents, who are working at least part-time and raising a family, while going to school. About 50 percent require remediation of some kind. Most of the students that we see in the lab lack clearly-established educational priorities as well as basic skills. Most had difficulty with English throughout school, and many did not finish high school. For that reason, they come to us with vast differences in ability, which makes it necessary for us to offer a variety of courses, some on different levels.

In addition, in order to accommodate their schedules--some come only two days a week, some cannot came early in the day, some cannot stay late, most must work around their other responsibilities--we have found it necessary to offer courses at several different times. However, with only a few students able to take a particular course at a certain time, we often have not had enough students to justify holding all the necessary sections.

Therefore, in the fall of 1985, we began offering all ten of our courses together at each of eleven different times. That way, two students in vocabulary, three in one level of reading, four in another, one or two in both spelling and study skills, and eight or nine in the basic writing course together could constitute a full-sized class. The result is a schedule totaling 110 sections, which is more than one-third of the school's total offerings.

To enable students to work, for the most part independently, in the lab where other students may be taking as many as ten different courses, I have prepared a lab manual for each course. Each one includes an introduction to the way the lab is conducted; an explanation of how that particular course is designed; information regarding objectives, grading, the final exam, and a suggested test schedule; and finally, a step-by-step explanation of each assignment.

Much of the instruction is on cassettes with accompanying workbooks. We were fortunate to get eight IBM PC's through a Title III grant, so each

course is supplemented with computer-assisted instruction as well. This frees the instructor to work with students individually.

One of our goals is to make our students independent learners. Many of them are reluctant to assume responsibility for their own learning and think that they would be more comfortable sitting passively with a group of students listening to the same "chalk talk." But in the traditional classroom setting, I have found many of them not actively participating and certainly not learning.

The lab situation forces them to participate actively. Not only that, but because so much of the material is on cassettes, students are able to work through lessons at their own pace, stopping, rewinding, and listening again as needed. They often listen to the cassettes while driving to and from campus, and some play them while preparing dinner and doing other routine chores as well.

Just recently, a student who had started the basic writing course, as she put it, "absolutely scared to death" and who had been unsuccessful in passing her first test, came into the lab all smiles and excited and said, "I finally understand it! I listened to that cassette four times and all of a sudden, it hit me. I knew just what you were saying."

She is just one of the many students who are unable to grasp a lesson the first time. Being able to replay portions of the lesson until she really

understood them enabled her to succeed for the first time and really built her confidence.

We tell our students that they can work at their own pace. By that, we mean that one student may work through an assignment in one hour while another may take three. The additional time that a student may require for an assignment should be in addition to his regularly-scheduled lab time. That way, by putting in more time each week (either in the lab or out), he should still be able to get through the required material during the course of the semester.

What began as one reading improvement class in January 1977 gradually evolved into separate courses for reading comprehension, vocabulary, and study skills. Then spelling was added, and the reading was divided into different levels. With the conversion of our basic writing course from a traditional classroom to a lab setting, the program was completed. We now offer reading at four levels, vocabulary at two, spelling, study skills, a writing lab for students who are referred with specific writing problems, and the developmental writing course, which is composed of three one-credit-hour units. The Appendix lists the textbooks, cassette programs, and computer-assisted instruction that are used in each course.

Each student enrolling for the first time and each transfer student who has not completed the English and math requirements is required to take ASSET, which tests language usage, reading comprehension, and numerical skills. Students reading below ninth-grade level are required to take

the appropriate reading course during their first semester. Students who do not test out of the basic writing course are encouraged to begin it their first semester. This basic writing course helps fulfill the composition requirement on some of our vocational-technical programs for students who do not intend to transfer to a four-year institution. For students who do not test out of it, it is a prerequisite for the required freshman composition course.

Let us now take a brief look at each course. The lowest level reading course, Basic Language Skills, is designed for students who possess only rudimentary reading and writing skills. They are below the level where GED instruction begins. While we only have a few such students, we do get them; and because they are unable to function independently in the lab, they work one-on-one with a paraprofessional.

Basic Reading Skills is a course for students reading at fourth to eighth-grade level. We administer the Nelson Reading Skills Test, Form C, as pre and post-tests as well as a diagnostic test for word attack skills and find the majority of them require extensive work in phonics and syllabication, which is provided on worksheets and cassettes. The textbook for the course is Fundamentals of College Reading: Strategies for Success by Kolzow and Lehmann, which is a lower-level version of College Reading: Strategies for Success, which we began using for our higher-level course after being introduced to it by the authors in a presentation at the North Central Reading Conference in 1982. We like the text because, as the title implies, it gives students the strategies they need in order to

better comprehend what they read. Rather than just testing whether students comprehend, it teaches reading as thinking. Additional instruction and practice are given with the software program The Reading Efficiency System. These students work through the two lower levels of that computer program.

College Reading Skills is the course for students reading at ninth through twelfth-grade level. Again, a double check on placement is made. In this course, we administer the Nelson-Denny Reading Test the first day of class and give it again as a post-test at the end of the course as well. Decoding is generally not as much of a problem with this group. The text-workbook is, as previously stated, College Reading: Strategies for Success by Kolzow and Lehmann. Because both texts are designed for use in a traditional classroom rather than in a lab situation, I have prepared cassettes that guide students through each chapter. In addition, we use The Reading Efficiency System as computer-assisted instruction.

Efficient Reading is a course designed for students who are reading at college level with no comprehension problems. The courses focuses on increasing reading rate to as high a level as is appropriate for each particular kind of reading. The students use Improving College Reading by Jacobus as a workbook, which is supplemented by Speed Reading . . . The Computer Course.

The greatest change we made in the lab and the one that has allowed us the most flexibility is offering

Fundamentals of English, the basic writing course, as a lab course rather than following a traditional classroom format. By incorporating those sections into the lab structure, we have been able to increase the number of times that we offer each course to eleven. This makes scheduling students much easier.

Fundamentals of English, the developmental writing course, is composed of three one-credit-hour units which must be completed in sequence. Depending on the student's ability and the available time, he may complete one, two, or all three units during the course of a semester.

Before this, students had only one sixteen-week semester in which to build their skills to college level. Some who were less successful often "squeaked through" with D's, which set them up for potential failure in the following Freshman Composition I course.

The new structure for the course is competency based, so the student need never fail. Alternate test forms and paper assignments are available as needed to allow a student as many chances as necessary to meet the established criteria for each assignment. Requiring a basic level of competency also means that we do not average scores together for the various assignments in order to arrive at a final grade. The student must achieve a passing score on one assignment before he can go on to the next. This also means, however, that very weak students may not be able to finish more than one of the three units during the course of a semester. Most do finish two, however.

Many finish all three, and a few even finish the entire course well before the end of the semester.

What we actually did was take the original three-credit-hour course, Fundamentals of English, and divide it into three one-credit-hour units or courses, Fundamentals of English A, B, and C. This eliminated the problem of the large number of Incompletes that we were originally faced with when we changed to a competency-based course. If a student completes only one unit, he can drop Fundamentals of English B and C and still get credit for A. Then the following semester, he would start with Fundamentals of English B.

The course work is sequential and process oriented because we find many of these students totally mystified by the entire writing process. They often have no idea of basic structure or purpose, and their mechanical skills are so deficient that they greatly hinder comprehension; many just start in writing with the hope that the results will meet with the instructor's approval.

In Fundamentals of English A, we start right at the beginning with subjects and verbs in sentences. Then we introduce the paragraph so that students can begin to see how the parts fit the whole. The criteria for each paper that is assigned only includes material that has been covered up to that point. As the student progresses through the course, the writing assignments gradually get longer--two and three-paragraph papers in Fundamentals of English B; four

and five-paragraph papers in Fundamentals of English C--and so do the lists of criteria.

We begin with the basic paragraph because it is like a miniature essay with the same components: a point that is supported by specific details that are put into a logical order and linked together with appropriate transitions. However, we do not dwell on the single paragraph very long because we have found that many students' difficulties do not show up until they are faced with somewhat longer, more complex assignments.

Students are required to write nine papers in the course (although not initially meeting the criteria for a paper may necessitate a student's writing several more). The first one is an impromptu--a paper on a topic that is assigned at the beginning of class period and due at the end of it. That first one is not graded, but it is read and marked to indicate various problems and suggestions for revision. We use this as a double check on the ASSET score for placement and also to determine a base line for the student's writing.

Papers #3, 6, and 9 are also impromptus. Paper #3 serves as a final exam for Fundamentals of English A, #6 for Fundamentals of English B, and #9 for Fundamentals of English C. A student who successfully completes Paper #9, and thereby the entire course, demonstrates that he can construct a five-paragraph essay following the basic structure and with a minimum of errors. That is the starting point for papers in the regular freshman composition course.

The tests over fragments, run-ons, punctuation, etc. are corrected by the instructor in the student's presence. This gives the instructor the opportunity to ask the student how he arrived at his answers and turns the test correcting into a learning experience for the student as the instructor provides additional help where needed. Therefore, even though a student may not pass a test the first time he attempts it, when the instructor corrects it with him, it pinpoints his errors and clarifies areas that are confusing to him.

The lab manual for this course is somewhat like a workbook with sample papers provided as well as forms for the student's outlines of his own papers. Looking at the sample paper and constructing an outline of his own help him logically structure his ideas.

The manual also includes seven basic spelling rules with spaces below each for students to enter words that they may have misspelled which relate to each rule. In addition, there is a list of definitions of words that are commonly confused, such as the homonyms there, their, and they're, and provisions for students to keep track of any errors in their papers regarding them. Finally, there is the Errors Tally. While we do not like to concentrate on errors, we firmly believe that in order for students to improve their writing they must do more than simply practice writing: they must be made aware of their errors and then be given the opportunity for additional practice in avoiding them in future writing. The tally lists fifteen basic kinds of errors, and the student records the

number of each occurring in a paper. The student then corrects the indicated problems in the paper and turns it back in for the instructor to review. If there is no further problem, the paper is placed in the student's file.

While, as instructors, we do not discourage friendly competition between students on various assignments, we maintain that each student is competing with no one but himself. There is no limit to the number of students who can earn top grades. Any limits that there are result from the student's own motivation--or lack thereof.

New technologies make it possible for students to learn at their own rate through a variety of means. Not having to repeat a lecture to several sections frees the instructor to interact more personally with each student. The computers and cassettes are virtually tireless in providing instruction and drill, and rather than impersonalizing the learning environment, they make it possible for the instructor to make it more personal for each student. The instructor has more time to diagnose, facilitate, and motivate. With a small staff, we have found this to be the most effective way to meet our students' needs.

Appendix

Kirtland Community College
Reading/Writing Lab

English 080 Basic Language	Text: Programmed Reading for Adults Books 1-8 Skills Sullivan CAI: Reading and Thinking I Learning to Read Words
English 086 Basic Reading Skills	Text: Fundamentals of College Reading: Strategies for Success Kolzow & Lehmann CAI: The Reading Efficiency System Levels F-G & H-I
English 088 Writing Lab	Cassettes: English Modular Mini Course Educulture CAI: Practical Grammar English Grammar and Usage
English 090 Fundamentals of English A, B, C	Cassettes: English Modular Mini Course Modules 6, 7, 8, 13, 15, 16A&B Educulture CAI: Practical Grammar English Grammar and Usage
English 092 Mechanics of Spelling	Cassettes: Mechanics of Spelling Modules 1-6 Educulture CAI: Practical Spelling Random House--Spelling Demons
English 093 Study Skills	Cassettes: Academic Skills Modules 1, 5, 6, 8-10 Educulture CAI: Managing for Success: Delegation, Time & Tasks

English 094 Vocabulary Development I	Cassettes: Vocabulary Development Modules 4-7 Educulture Academic Skills Module 7 Educulture CAI: Practical Vocabulary Disk I Classifying Prefixes and Suffixes
English 095 Vocabulary Development II	Cassettes: Vocabulary Development Modules 2, 3, 8, 9 Educulture CAI: Practical Vocabulary Disk I Classifying Prefixes and Suffixes
English 096 College Reading Skills	Text: College Reading: Strategies for Success Kolzow & Lehmann CAI: The Reading Efficiency System Levels J-K & L-N
English 109 Efficient Reading	Text: Improving College Reading Jacobus CAI: Speed Reading . . . The Computer Course

What Happens to People Who Cannot Read? The Problem of Illiteracy

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Abstract

This paper presents significant research studies, bibliographies, and selected scholarly papers that have been developed to analyze numerous aspects of illiteracy. An emphasis is given to reading problems. A definition, characteristics, and the plight of illiterates are discussed. Selected research studies are reviewed and a brief analysis given of each. Concluding remarks attempt to state the implications of these scholarly studies.

For many years Jonathan Kozol has been writing on the topics of illiteracy and systematic educational problems. In his most recent book, Illiterate America (1985), he states that 25 million American adults cannot read poison warnings on a can of pesticide; they cannot read a letter from their child's teacher, or the front page of a newspaper.[1] According to Kozol an additional 35 million adults (functional illiterates) read below the level needed to function successfully in our society. Kozol also points out the United States ranks forty-nine among 158

member nations of the United Nations in literacy and wastes over $100 billion annually as a result.[2]

In 1975 Jim Cates of the University of Texas completed the Adult Performance Level of literacy, a four year study funded by the Federal government. He found 20 percent of the adult population to be illiterate; 63 million, according to Cates are marginally incompetent. Some believe that Cates' illiteracy study is one of the most comprehensive ever accomplished.[3] The Adult Performance Level survey produced the most widely cited figure for the extent of illiteracy in the United States: 23 million Americans.

The 1970 Survival Literacy Study and the 1971 follow-up study conducted by Louis Harris and Associates reported 18.5 million people 16 years of age and older were functionally illiterate (13 percent of the adult population). Literacy was defined as the ability to fill out application forms for such common items as a Social Security number, a bank loan, Medicaid, and a driver's license.[4]

In the 1979 a Census Bureau study said a .5 percent of the adult population is illiterate. The study defines literate adults as people over age 14 who have only completed the fifth grade.

In 1980 the Adult Performance Level Study from 1975 was extrapolated to indicate that 74 million people are marginally incompetent or worse.

In May of 1986 the Department of Education released a Census Bureau study, based on a 1982 test,

stating 17 to 21 million adults, 13 percent of the adult population, are illiterate.[5]

It may be difficult to get consensus on numbers of illiterates or functional illiterates in this country, but we do know what happens to people who cannot read. They become eligible to be counted in the illiterate category, and their lives are apt to be economically and socially restrained.

About 96 percent of the total adult, illiterate world population (850 million people) live in Third World countries. In Africa well over 60 percent of the population is illiterate, and in Asia over 50 percent are illiterate. Sometimes the choice of a literate language can be difficult. In India 1,549 separate languages or dialects are spoken.[6]

Recognition of the illiterates' plight is currently a topic of considerable interest in this country. Recently (September 1986) the American Broadcasting Company and the Public Broadcasting Service began a 12-month campaign called Project Literacy U.S. to promote literacy awareness. This effort follows a two-year advertising campaign (1984-1986) by a coalition of 11 literacy organizations. However, it has taken us some time to recognize and be sensitive to this national problem.

Fifty years ago John Steinbeck was doing careful research for his popular novel, The Grapes of Wrath. This book describes the deplorable conditions of displaced dust bowl farmers and illiterate, migrant farm laborers without work. Although The Grapes of

Wrath was a number-one best seller in 1939 and remained among top book sellers for the following year, public reaction of this problem remained skeptical. Many were inclined to believe Steinbeck's material was exaggerated, if not deliberately falsified, as part of a plot to defame either California or the nation. "One rumor that gained great currency among conservatives and farmers in California was that Steinbeck was a Jew who was acting for Zionist-communist interests in deliberately trying to undermine the economy."[7]

Over the years, minority groups have been significantly over represented within illiterate, poverty categories. For blacks, 33 percent were in poverty in 1970, and 34 percent were in poverty in 1984, compared to 10 percent and 11 percent respectively for whites.[8] Langston Hughes, the talented, black poet, has written numerous poems that reflect the attitudes of downtrodden minorities. Two of his poems, "Border Line" and "Me and the Mule", are examples of Hughes' talent, and they represent some latent frustrations of depressed minority groups.

Border Line

I used to wonder
About living and dying--
I think the difference lies
Between tears and crying.

I used to wonder
About here and there--
I think the distance
Is nowhere.

Me and the Mule
My old mule,
He's got a grin on his face
He's been a mule so long
He's forgot about his race.

I'm like that old mule--
Black--and don't give a damn!
You got to take me
Like I am.[9]

The United Nations' sponsored Experimental World Literacy Program has found that victims of illiteracy all over the world have similar characteristics. Illiterates are adversely affected by problems that go hand-in-hand with poverty. They also have limited access to goods and services, and difficulty engaging in political processes.[10]

Jeanne S. Chall has published a useful article titled, "Literacy: Trends and Explanations", that attempts to define literacy in this country.[11] Chall explains the criteria for literacy has changed and continues to change. For instance the definition of literacy has changed from an ability to write one's name to an ability to use reading for daily functioning (a fourth-grade reading level was thought adequate during World War II and was changed to an eighth grade level). During World War II, 16 million Americans over 20 years old were found unable to read at a fourth-grade level.[12] John B. Carroll and Jeanne Chall's National Academy of Education report on reading, titled Toward a Literate Society (1975), suggests a twelfth-grade reading level is essential.[13]

Chall has comments on a wide universe of literacy problems from early childhood learning to adult illiteracy. She believes about 10-15 percent of children and adults have severe difficulty in learning to read.[14]

Ronald M. Cervero has reviewed and analyzed definitions of illiteracy and functional literacy and concludes that one common definition is not always adequate. He closes his article, "Is A Common Definition of Adult Literacy Possible?" with this thought: "The question, the, is not whether there is a need for a common definition of literacy, but rather whose needs will be served."[15] Cervero has done an adequate job reviewing well-known definitions of literacy and functional literacy.

One of the most comprehensive monographs on the history of literacy and readers has been written by Carl F. Kaestle.[16] This analysis discusses the shift from oral to written cultures. For many centuries after the introduction of Greek alphabetic writing, literacy was restricted to a small elite and limited to a few functions, chiefly religion, accounting, genealogy, and sometimes political administration.[17] Kaestle believes the uses of literacy have not been the subject of much historical study, but they are numerous and varied. He quotes Princeton, historian Lawrence Stone as saying, "If you teach a man to read the Bible, he may also read pornography or seditious literature."[18] Kaestle has an excellent review of literature along with his scholarly presentation.

Characteristics of Illiterates

Recent attention to the problem of illiteracy has produced some excellent reports focusing on: characteristics, research projects, specific reading strategies that might be helpful with adults, and available resources for literacy programs. One effort by the Federal government titled the National Adult Literacy Project was launched by the President in September 1983.[19] The Department of Education funded scholarly literature reviews and some research through the Far West Laboratory for Educational Research and Development and the Network of Innovative Schools. Four thoughtful reports have been produced to address literacy issues:

1)"Adult Illiterates and Adult Literacy Programs: A Summary of Descriptive Data" by Janet McGrail provides a current literature review.[20] McGrail states that groups with high rates of illiteracy are:
   a) The old
   b) Minority groups
   c) The poor
   d) The unemployed and those employed at low-skill jobs
   e) Residents of the South and rural areas[21]

Direct Federal support for adult literacy has been provided primarily by the Adult Education Act of 1966. McGrail reviews active, significant literacy efforts to include military, business and industry, and academic programs. Each is subdivided to identify program characteristics and participant characteristics.[22]

2)"Guidebook for Effective Literacy Practice, 1983-1984." by David P. Crandall, et al., is designed to expose effective literacy practices.[23] This study examines administrative structures of literacy programs as well as program components such as:

a)Student recruitment
b)Orientation
c)Counseling
d)Diagnostic testing
e)Instructional methods and materials
f)Assessment
g)Follow-up
h)Program evaluation[24]

3)"Research and Development Agenda" by Kathleen Phillips, et at. is a literature survey organized into seven topics:

a)Unique attributes of adult beginning readers
b)Learner diagnosis and assessment
c)Staff training
d)Impact of literacy programs
e)Teacher characteristics and methodologies
f)Technology
g)Literacy development in other countries[25]

Phillips has an excellent bibliography with 82 citations from prominent authorities.

4)"Television Technologies in Combating

Illiteracy" by Barbara A. Marchilonis considers the use of television in literacy programs.[26] This monograph is quite well done. Marchilonis; report states"...we believe that for the vast number of illiterate or functionally illiterate citizens, the media have an unmotivating or narcotic effect, allowing those citizens to tolerate their condition.[27]

Margaret Robinson has written a final report on the National Adult Literacy Project.[28] Her Chapter III contains a compendium of demographic and statistical information on adult literacy characteristics. These National Adult Literacy reports should be quite useful for anyone interested in what happens to people who cannot read.

Other significant reports on literacy include:

1)"The Acquisition of Literacy by Children and Adults" by Thomas G. Sticht.[29] Here Sticht presents some studies which suggest learning to understand language by eye as skillfully as by ear may take several years after the initial decoding has been mastered. Sticht has done numerous studies for the military to analyze reading skills.

2)"Ethnographic Research on Word Recognition Strategies of Adult Beginning Readers" by Nancy Boraks and Sally Schumacher was sponsored by the Department of Education.[30] The study attempts to identify reading strategies which facilitated or inhibited progress of adult beginning readers (ABR). Boraks and Schumacher found that most adult reading instruction is based on methods developed for children beginning to read. Studies by Monroe(1932)

and Boraks (1978) are claimed to be the only works available that provide specific information of ABR's use of reading cues.[31] A discussion of each study is provided. Boraks found that ABR's tended to use semantic cues less than children and did not have the same pattern of using graphic/phonemic cues found in children. Also reported is that different word recognition andcomprehension strategies are used by children who read well when compared to those who read poorly. Adults are less likely to try new approaches to reading because of: long standing habits, concern with failure, and a tendency not to involve their self-esteem in learning. This study by Boraks and Schumacher has a strong bibliography.

3)"Outlook for the 80's: Adult Literacy" by Lorraine Y. Mercier presents four papers on literacy issues.[32] The attempt is to define the literacy problem in this country. The study was sponsored by the Department of Education through Dingle Associates in Washington, D.C. When reviewing behavior characteristics of illiterates it was found that only two percent of illiterates attend classes.

4)"Adult Literacy: An Annotated Bibliography" by Francis E. Kazemek and Pat Rigg presents some of the most current writings on adult literacy.[33] They are in the form of journal articles, books, and ERIC documents. This is an excellent annotated bibliography, and it is organized in five sections:

a)State of adult literacy in the United States and internationally.
b)Ways of looking at literacy.

c)Critiques of current philosophical assumptions about literacy.
d)Literacy related research.
e)Teaching methods.[34]

Karen Griswold also has a good annotated bibliography consisting of seven publications on literacy, 16 on reading and 14 on writing.[35]

5)"Adult Literacy Education Current and Future Direction" by Arlene Fingeret was sponsored by the Department of Education.[36] Using a review of literature, this paper identifies individually oriented literacy programs. According to Fingeret, the sociocultural characteristics of American illiterate adults are presented. She said one of the major forces behind efforts to define literacy is the desire of policy makers to count illiterate adults. Fingeret believes social and behavioral science research on literacy and the nature of reading processes make form confusion. "Broad issues an the aspects of literacy and reading that do not fall clearly into one of the disciplinary domains often are not addressed..."[37] Fingeret thinks schema theory holds promise for adults by placing emphasis on specific aspects of literacy instruction such as: Utilizing pre-existing knowledge and experiences, setting purposes for reading and

asking appropriate questions before and after reading.[38] A good analysis of schema theory for adults is presented. Characteristics that illiterates bring with them are identified as: fear of failure, low self-esteem and self-confidence, resistance to change and lack of future orientation, inarticulateness, fatalism, inability to cope or to think abstractly, and

apathy. Her bibliography contains 150 citations, and it's quite good.[39]

One of the most frequently quoted literacy studies in the professional literature is Adult Illiteracy in the United States: A Report to the Ford Foundation by Carman St. John Hunter and David Harman (1975).[40] In 1984 Francis Kazemek and Pat Rigg said Hunter and Harman's work is the most comprehensive study of illiteracy in the United States to date.[41] Hunter and Harman have examined four areas:

1)What is adult illiteracy?
2)Who are adult illiterates?
3)What is being done about adult illiteracy?
4)What should be done about adult illiteracy?

Their central recommendation is to establish community based initiatives to serve the most disadvantaged segments of our population.

In a summary of his Ford Foundation report, Carman St. John Hunter said demands of mass education today, with bureaucratic, legal, technological, and economic complexities, require competency far beyond simple literacy.[42] In the 17th and 18th centuries (where 90% of the population became literate; i.e., they could sign their names and read simple passages) the motive for mass education was to make good citizens. Citizens in today's environment are at a distinct disadvantage if they cannot read, write, and do some mathematical calculations. Reading is not just important, it has become a vital survival skills. Hunter has classified illiterates into four socioeconomic groups, which for him are more important factors than educational level:

1)High school dropouts who fully share values of dominant cultural group. They lack credentials, and this is their big problem. Census data indicates 34% of public school dropouts are not enrolled in any school and not in the labor force. Fourteen percent of high school graduates are not in college and not in the labor force.[43]

2)People in this classification leave public school earlier than the first group, yet belong to social groups where literacy is taken for granted.

3)Persons who suffer multiple deprivations and are found in the inner city or in rural poverty areas.

4)Persons in this group have just about given up believing that anything they can do will make a difference. They are hardcore stationary poor.[44]

In conclusion Hunter reasons that cultivation of human competence results when people are empowered to exercise greater control over their own lives.

One immensely successful literacy campaign is Cuba's effort to educate it's population since Fidel Castro's Revolution of 1961. The Cuban Literacy Campaign has been used as a model for Nicaragua's current literacy efforts. Jonathan Kozol wrote of Cuba's literacy campaign in 1978, Children of the Revolution: A Yankee Teacher in the Cuban Schools.[45] A recent report on Cuba's educational

system was made by Maurice Berube based on his May 1983 visit to Cuba.[46]

Berube has an interesting, well written account of Cuba's successful literacy efforts. According to Berube, Cuba is creating a school system sufficiently effective to place it in the category of a developed nation. Jose' R. Fernandez, minister of education and hero of the Revolution, was available to Berube for discussions. Fernandez said there are two categories of problems that still plague Cuba; they are problems of material (lack of equipment) and human deficiencies relating to quality (teacher preparation and involvement of parents).

Cuba appears to be successful in the Literacy Campaign at the elementary level and, increasingly, at the intermediate level. "Variables that coincide with U.S. research findings are high teacher expectations and significant parental involvement."[47] In Cuba, children have the same teacher for the first four years; Berube believes the United States should consider such a system. Furthermore, Berube recommends the United States:

1)Create effective school models (especially for the poor).
2)Create national urban student and parental organizations as Cuba has done. Parents are encouraged to become volunteers in Cuban schools.
3)Create a national educational system to provide uniform leadership.
4)Eliminate poverty. Most of Havana's slums have been eliminated.[48]

In this country we do not have a single authority for total educational policy. Even when dealing with prisoners (over 60% of the half million state and Federal inmates are illiterate), it is difficult to mandate literacy.[49] The state of Virginia has proposed that no prisoner be released until a literacy test can be passed. But a prisoner's legal rights and the policy of state and Federal penal institutions must be considered in a free society.

One encouraging sign in this country's recent efforts to combat illiteracy (reading deficiencies in particular) is the number of volunteer agencies willing to mobilize their talents. Libraries are a good example as well as schools, state and local governments, community agencies, businesses, and industry. Libraries focus on coordinating and providing adult literacy services at the community level.[50] Yet in some states there are waiting lines to get into adult basic education classes. Evelyn Wolf and Catherine Kavanagh have a good paper explaining adult literacy services that might be found in a library.[51]

Recruiting adequate volunteer tutors is a most difficult task. Without trained, experienced professionals to direct reading programs, they probably will flounder. Funding for professional staff and materials remains a serious problem within many well intentioned volunteer programs. The two largest national volunteer organizations tutoring adults in reading and English as a second language are Laubach Literacy Action and Literacy Volunteers of America.[52]

Research

There are numerous studies identifying personality factors and other characteristics of adult basic education students. Alienation, avoidance, hostility toward authority, withdrawal, violent aggression, fear of schools, self-image as an illiterate, rejection of the desire to develop intellectually, and rigid value systems are debilitating personality factors found.[53] In most cases illiterates must break through concepts of defeat, desperation, and despair in order to achieve.

Children from low income families are particularly vulnerable to a deceleration of reading progress after the primary grades. Chall believes a major break seems to be about grade four. Prior to grade four an oral tradition is found; the text rarely goes beyond language and knowledge a young reader already has acquired through listening, T.V., or direct experience. Beyond grade four a literacy tradition is started; here reading material goes beyond what is already known. Materials typically read at grade four and beyond change in content, in linguistic complexities, and in cognitive demands.[54]

Karl L. Alexander's, et al., study comparing high school dropouts to high school graduates demonstrates that cognitive performance is definitely improved by staying in school.[55] Alexander observed that dropping out of school has its most severe negative effects on disadvantaged students. Culturally disadvantaged dropouts are apt to find themselves in the functionally illiterate category.

D. R. Garrison reports on dropouts in adult basic education courses and finds that self-confidence is a good discriminator between persisters and dropouts.[56] Another finding is that adult handicapped learners appear to set unrealistic occupational goals. This finding is consistent with previously reported characteristics of educationally handicapped, low socioeconomic groups.[57] Mark Blaug has observed that better educated people are generally more flexible, more motivated, better at problem solving, and more productive.[58] Flexibility has been identified by McDonald and Zimny as one of two primary ingredients in effective reading (the other ingredient is comprehension).[59] Promoting self-image and flexibility requires considerable individual attention from a dedicated instructor.

Rosemarie J. Park found that adults often fail to make adequate progress in reading comprehension. One explanation offered for this failure is a lack of abstract conceptual categories necessary for understanding advanced text. Park also mentions that research with adult basic readers is limited.[60]

Ronald R. Powell, et al., have reported on how childhood socialization might affect adult reading and library use.[61] Their study indicates the importance of social learning and parents as primary agents in the development of reading and library use. Of particular importance were childhood factors:

1)Whether the respondent read frequently as a child.

2)At what age the respondent began using the library.
3)Degree to which the parents read.
4)With whom the respondent started using the library.[62]

These findings from Powell are similar to previously reported characteristics of individuals who read frequently compared to nonreaders.[63]

Consistent with other studies, B. F. Kiker and Julia A. Heath have found family background variables to exert significant indirect effects on earnings.[64] Education was found to be a much more important determinant of black earnings than white earnings. Parental income and level of education exert the strongest effects on reducing the black-white earnings differential.

An interesting study of illiterate adults was conducted by Arlene Fingeret to record their perspectives.[65] Forty-three, illiterate adults in a medium size, northeast, urban setting were interviewed for two hours. Additional interviews with parents, spouses, siblings, children, friends, and neighbors were also conducted. Illiterate adults in this study identified a risk connected with learning to read and write. They didn't want to be alienated from their network of friends and associates. Illiterate adults understand that their network relationships will shift when they learn to read. Fingeret presents this analysis to educators as a concern that must be addressed within literacy programs.

In a study of individuals with low educational attainment (132 urban black men and women, aged 60 to 94) Marsel A. Heisel found self-perceived reading proficiency to be the best predictor of learning activity.[66] Heisel said, "It is possible that in a population with very low educational attainment, the habit of learning is not fostered so much by grade level completed or intermittent periods of adult education, but rather by a positive concept of oneself as a learner."[67]

Gordon C. Godbey and Iran C. Mohsenin did a study for the state of Pennsylvania to determine the impact of their adult basic education (ABE) program.[68] Two hundred forty nine former adult students that enrolled in ABE programs in 1974, 1976 and 1978 were interviewed via telephone. Over half of the sample was under 35 years old. It was consistently reported that most participants read all or part of a newspaper every day. Writing usage did not approach that of reading and was confined to short notes or letters. Each year's former students had a high percentage indicating improved self-esteem as a major effect. The 1974 students were more likely to be registered voters, and the 1978 students were more likely to have obtained a General Education Development certificate.

Implications

People who cannot read are often viewed as restraints on society's economic growth (in dynamic societies as well as developing countries). It is quite difficult for illiterates to be productive in industrial

nations; indeed they often require institutional care (food, shelter, and special treatment). A shortage of skilled labor can result from an illiteracy problem. In this country the population of males and females in their prime producing years (45-54) has gone down from 11.4 percent in 1960 to 9.5 percent in 1984.69 Fifteen percent of this group may be illiterate in relative sense. Meaning their reading skills are not adequate to hold skilled or semi-skilled jobs. In order to make sure an adequate work force is available, nations find it in their best interest to attack illiteracy. In most cases illiterates also benefit through enhanced economic opportunities, better self-esteem, and a higher social status.

Cuba's mobilization to eliminate illiteracy is probably the reason that society has been able to maintain it's stability and self-esteem in spite of sever economic hardships. Eric Hoffer has commented: "There is little doubt that the frustration engendered by unemployment is due more to a corrosive sense of worthlessness than to economic hardship."[70] Nations may develop internal strength by keeping their citizens literate and employed. Nicaragua appears to be following Cuba's educational policy to strengthen their government.

In this country we have a wealth of knowledge regarding the behavior and characteristics of illiterates. And we are in a position to do much more for our illiterate population than has been done in the past. Qualified instructors for our literacy programs could be improved in quantity and quality. This problem may require additional resources from state

and federal governments. Private groups have volunteer instructors with the best of intentions, but they frequently lack training and subject matter knowledge from professional educators. Instructors need considerable knowledge of remedial reading techniques along with experience in adult, illiterate characteristics.

What happens to people who cannot read is related to a nation's educational policy. A dynamic, literate nation should be able to significantly help its illiterate population. Another important question to consider is: What happens to a nation that does not help its illiterate population? Cuba for instance has not waited to find out.

An educated world community of citizens will be in a better position to deal with serious national and international problems. Our communications skills (reading and writing) keep us informed, and they served as a sophisticated but necessary means for survival. Since we now live in a world armed to the teeth with nuclear weapons, a high level of communications is essential at all levels of literacy.

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What Happens When Readers Do Not Read? The Problem of Reluctant Readers

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Abstract

This paper will attempt to present information and analysis about people who can read but do not. They may or may not be found in remedial reading classes as students. They are frequently identified as reluctant or unmotivated readers early in their school years. The organization of this paper, after an introduction, is to identify the characteristics of reluctant readers and to discuss what happens to them. The consequences of a reluctant reading public is also discussed. Significant contributions from scholarly literature will be presented.

John Hay, a distinguished naturalist and gifted writer, said, "Communion with life means understanding its skills; otherwise it becomes a junkyard of castoff opportunities."[1] For those who can read but do not, communion with life will probably be diminished to some degree. People who do not read may be placing limits on themselves; their personalities may be less thoughtful than those who do read.[2] William Gray and Bernie Rogers, reading professionals, present research to demonstrate that reading relates to maturity: "It is assumed that, in the satisfaction of interests and needs through reading, a

mature reader will continue to grow in capacity to interpret broadly and deeply."[3]

It has been suggested that capable readers who chose not to read have no advantage over those who are incapable of reading.[4] If immature behavior is related to restricted reading patterns, it may be possible to identify readers from nonreaders based on their behavior. As an example, the impressive black poet, Langston Hughes, frequently identifies intolerance and bigotry (immature behavior) through his poems. It seems to be a case of a reader (Hughes) putting his nonreading foes in their place and at the same time communicating a cogent message to the world. Here is a Hughes poem:

Ku Klux

They took me out
To some lonesome place
They said, "Do you believe
in the great white race?"

I said, "Mister,
To tell you the truth,
I'd believe in anything
If you'd just turn me loose."
The white man said, "Boy,
Can it be
You're a-standin' there
a-sassin' me?"

They hit me in the head
And knocked me down
And then they kicked me
On the ground.

A klansman said, "Nigger,
Look me in the face--
And tell me you believe in
The great white race."[5]

John Hay reasons that "No triumph of mathematics and abstract thought can elevate us above the whole company of existence.[6] For every adult that reads in this country there are probably two or more that do not (based on these assumptions: 60 million illiterates, 60 million readers who do not read, and 60 million readers who do read).[7] Forty percent of the adult population in Boston is now defined as technically illiterate.[8] Our nation, one of the most advanced technical civilizations in the world, ranks 49th in its literacy level among 158 member nations of the United Nations. Switzerland and Israel are given credit for being the most literate societies on earth.[9] "Much of Japan's industrial efficiency has been credited to its almost universally high level of literacy."[10] Japan also has a relatively low crime rate that is probably associated with their high literacy level.

Ogden Nash, the prolific, witty poet, hits an appropriate cord relating to our nonreading public in his poem, "A Caution To Everybody".

Consider the auk;
Becoming extinct because he forgot how to fly,
and could only walk,
Consider man, who may well become extinct
Because he forgot to walk and learn how to fly

before he thinked.[11]

Many in this country fly metaphorically, with the help of technical inducements and distorted priorities, before they read, think and study through complicated issues. Several bright individuals caught up and embarrassed by the Iran-contra affair claimed they were "just doing their jobs." They may have learned to fly before they "thinked."

Introduction

David Harman, a professor of Columbia University's Teachers College who has studied illiteracy for almost 20 years, says there is little empirical evidence to indicate America has a massive problem of adult illiteracy.[12] Harman believes our biggest literacy problem today is the reduced value of reading as an activity. This results in large numbers of adults who can read but do not, or they have major deficiencies in reading comprehension and analytical skills according to Harman.[13]

An illiteracy conference at the Harvard University Graduate School of Education this past August (1987) provided Harman with a forum to make this comment: "There's a value to reading in people's lives that transcends putting a widget in a wadget. Literacy is a value, not a mechanical skills."[14] At this Harvard conference, Jeanne Chall made reference to Professor E. D. Hirsch, Jr.'s best selling book, Cultural Literacy (1987); she said Americans need more knowledge of history and society to read well.[15] Thomas G. Sticht who has conducted numerous reading studies for the Army and the Ford Foundation

also attended the Harvard conference, and he attacked Jonathon Kozol's book, Illiterate America (1985). Sticht said it showed a silly understanding of literacy. In particular, Sticht objected to Kozol's analysis that about 60 million people should be classified as either illiterate or functionally illiterate (one-third of American adults).[16]

Knowing who reads, how much they read, and what they read are difficult questions to resolve. Estimates of the illiterate or functionally illiterate population in this country range from about seven to 73 million people.[17] There is sketchy information identifying the number of adults who can read but do not. Accurate quantitative information based on a standard criteria for the terms: literate, illiterate, functionally illiterate, reader, and nonreader may not exist. Readers are frequently defined as those who read widely and are serious about reading. Daniel J. Boorstin, the well-known historian, has this analysis: "Reading is a lot like sex. It is a private and often secret activity. It is often undertaken in bed, and people are not inclined to underestimate either the extent or the effectiveness of their activity."[18]

On September 8, 1983, the front page of The New York Times had as one of their headlines: "Americans in Electronic Ear Are Reading as Much as Ever."[19] This feature article by Edward B. Fiske was described as being based on extensive interviews with scholars, educators, publishers, and readers. These 16 random points were made by Fiske:

1) Women who used to read less than men now read more than men. One study by Larry

Mikulecky and Nancy Leavitt Shankin found women read 14 minutes a day more than men (164 versus 150).

2) Reading is becoming more specialized.
3) Fifty-thousand book titles were published in 1983, the highest ever. In 1950, 11,000 book titles were published.
4) There are few reliable statistics on American reading habits.
5) The number of retail book stores increased 62 percent from 1972-1977.
6) Library circulation has grown at twice the rate of population growth since 1943.
7) Nine of 10 Americans 18 years or older read at least one magazine per month.
8) American adults read an hour and a half to three hours a day.
9) In 1923 R. B. Parson of the University of Chicago queried 314 adults and found the average daily reading time to be 113 minutes for men and 101 for women.
10) In 1972 Amiel T. Sharon of the Educational Testing Service asked a national sample of 5,087 adults what they had read the previous day. The average amount of all kinds of reading was 106 minutes. This effort by Sharon is thought to be one of the most thorough reading studies of its kind up to 1972. Sharon found these extremes: six percent of his ample read less than five minutes a day, and six percent read for eight hours a day. He also found that reading time increased with years of schooling-- from 55 minutes a day for those who never went past

grade school to 194 for those with a college degree.

11) John P. Robinson of the Survey Research Center at the University of Maryland estimates that Americans spend about 10 percent of their free time, or about four hours a week, engaged in reading, and this figure has been relatively consistent for nearly two decades.
12) "Young adults read more than older people and contrary to many expectations, studies consistently show that retired people read less than when they were working."20
13) In 1978 Yankelovich, Skelly, and White did a survey for the Book Industry Study Group, a trade association of book publishers, and found that while half of Americans are book readers, the majority of such reading is done by a hard core of about 25 percent or about 23 million people. One reported characteristic of this core group is that they watched a lot of television.
14) There may be a shift taking place from fiction to nonfiction.
15) There may be less reading accomplished for recreation and more for specific topics.
16) From 1960 to 1977 the number of printed words read by the typical American adult every day declined from 11,000 to 8,500.

Fifty-one years ago 1936 the Readers Digest printed an article by Jerome Barry (condensed from Today) titled, "Americans Cannot Read."21 Based on his survey of 1, 690 adults, only one-half could read

with reasonable ease. One-third could not engage intelligently in any reading activity. Barry's 1936 analysis relates to Kozol's discouraging findings that have been reported for over 20 years.[22] Jonathan Kozol, a passionate educator and writer, has received awards from the Guggenheimer, Ford, and Rockefeller Foundations to study reading problems in this country. He believes human survival is the final, indispensable objective of all efforts to achieve universal human competence -- literacy.[23]

In 1935 the National Council of Teachers of English met in Indianapolis, Indiana, and proclaimed that educators want to turn out readers, no purists.[24] Paul B. Diederich of Ohio State University declared the average American adult reads less than one book a year. The largest amount of reading according to Diederich, was accomplished by women clerks and stenographers. Their reading consisted of sentimental romance novels. The heaviest reading in most communities is by junior high school pupils, said Diederich, and then it declines steadily with increasing age and education.[25]

Twenty-seven years later (1962) the American Library Association (ALA) said adult book circulation increased 29 percent during the past five years (1957-1962).[26] This was based on responses from 100 public libraries. ALA President Florinnell F. Morton said it appears that electronic media does not detract from education and reading but seems to encourage it. Marianne Svensson, chief librarian in Ludvika, Sweden, found that television afforded a rare opportunity to stimulate reading. Her 1962 conclusion

came from studies with libraries in the United States.[27] In 1985 Julies M. T. Chan made an impressive, but perhaps extravagant, claim that reluctant readers will gladly read in order to succeed when using a computer.[28]

A recent, serious study of reading motivation (1983) by John F. Howell and Theodora A. Sylvester identifies two significant causes that contribute to reluctant readers: the overuse of television and a decline of adults who read to their children.[29] The television industry estimates that two million children under 11 years old are still watching T.V. at midnight each night. The average kindergarten graduate has already seen more than 5,000 hours of television; this is more time than it takes to obtain a bachelor's degree.[30]

Characteristics of Reluctant Readers

Definitions of those who can read but do not often employ the term reluctant reader. Mary F. Lenox said a reluctant reader is one who lacks motivation and is likely to have a permanent non-reading habit; this is the rule rather than the exception. This reluctant reader may or may not have special emotional or physical handicaps, may or may not have a reading ability below his or her chronological age, and may or may not get good or even mediocre grades.[31]

Thomas Cloer, Jr., say, "The term 'reluctant reader' has become commonplace in our professional jargon."[32] This type of student finds reading a real

source of anxiety. Reasons cited for this reading hostility range from broken homes to television according to Cloer.[33] Sheryl Joseph and Diane L. M. Wittig identify the reluctant reader as a capable reader who chooses not to read and, therefore, has no advantage over the person who is incapable of reading.[34] A group of librarians have identified reluctant readers as those students who, because of lack of interest, lack of reading ability, or a combination of both, do not enjoy reading as a leisure activity.[35]

Many reading professionals are quite concerned about reluctant readers, and they have identified strategies to be applied early in a child's reading development. Research indicates that reading aloud to children of preschool and elementary age improved vocabulary, comprehension, syntax, and fostered a richness of language unattainable otherwise.[36] In 1977 Sandra McCormick reviewed studies that prompted her to state: "Research now provides evidence of the direct relationship between reading aloud to children and reading performance, language development, and the development of reading interests."[37] Reading aloud to children seems to stimulate their motivation to read and their reading skill.

James L. Thomas and Ruth M. Loring edited a volume titled Motivating Children and Young Adults to Read -- 2 that discusses interests in reading.[38] One of the articles within this volume is "Motivating Reluctant Readers: A Gentle Push" by Hillary Taylor

Holbrook.[39] Holbrook claims young people who cannot read at all are far outnumbered by young people who can read but do not. (This observation is frequently mentioned within scholarly literature on reluctant readers, but no specific research studies are identified in support to it.) If this circumstance applies to adult populations then 120 million or more adults may not read (includes illiterates and readers who do not read). Holbrook has a sound presentation and suggests that students in their middle grades and up start to lose an appreciation of or value for reading.[40] Elana Rabban's article, "Reaching the Able but Unwilling Reader," provides some information regarding college students and college graduates who do not read beyond the requirements of their classes or jobs.[41] Rabban believes these students and graduates must be coaxed to read using whatever material interests them.

John Crompton indicated that most remarkable development in British publishing for young people during the last decade has been an emergence of several paperback series aimed at reluctant reader markets. Macmillan's Topliners remain the most successful series.[42] Crompton said, "I can only state my belief that it is reading which is more likely to produce the self-awareness that can lead to action or the refusal to be bamboozled any longer."[43]

Many reading teachers in and outside this country are quite aware that interesting material must be found to engage students. The Manitoba Department of Education in Canada has organized an assortment of 400 engrossing books with an annotated

bibliography.[44] In this country Carol LaSasso of Gallaudet College uses the National Enquirer with unmotivated readers.[45] Nicholas P. Criscuolo of New Haven Public Schools claims to have 10 strategies that effectively help the unreachable reader. Rock albums, scrapbooks, and the current television guide are part of his 10 strategies.[46] R. Baird Shuman offers advice covering a variety of ways to interest reluctant readers from reading activity logs to using comic books.[47]

L. D. Briggs has identified some characteristics of children who are not motivated to read: They do not show interest in stories or books; they may be shy, quiet, and unresponsive; day-dreaming or an attitude of indifference is common; displays of anxiety or nervousness when reading may be observed; the child may become antagonistic toward reading; display little or no concern about progress in reading; the child may not see the value in learning to read; and these children usually do not check books out of the library.[48] Unmotivated, beginning readers are on their way to being reluctant readers as adults. Characteristics observed in unmotivated, young readers are also found in adult reluctant readers (i.e., antagonistic toward reading and see no value in reading).

Interest in content and mastery of skills are important and indispensable to reading motivation.[49] Cloer gives further advice: "In the early stages of language arts instruction, it is essential that students be provided with predictable print that can be read with success."[50] The significance of getting off to a good start and developing a motivation to read cannot be

overstated. However, many adults who can read do not; the consequences are not inspiring. In addition to being the world's largest debtor nation,[51] we may have a deficit in literate national leaders. If our leaders on many levels do not read and enrich themselves, what is the result?

What Happens to Reluctant Readers?

In many cases adult reluctant readers are busy, successful people who do not value reading. Other than required job related reading, they do not make time to read. Joseph R. McCarthy, United States Senator from Wisconsin and one of the most gifted demagogues ever bred according to Richard H. Rovere, is a good example.[52] McCarthy was a vulgarian by method as well as instinct. "He belched and burped in public."[53] Horse racing, poker, drinking, and speculating on soybean futures occupied nearly all of his spare time and considerable official government time. Yet, he held two Presidents captive, Harry S. Truman and Dwight D. Eisenhower, or nearly captive as any Presidents of the United States have ever been in the conduct of our nation's affairs.[54] Eleanor Roosevelt said, "McCarthy's methods, to me, look like Hitler's."[55] Indeed McCarthy was no polite thinker or reader. But the erudite William F. Buckley, Jr., was supporter of Joe McCarthy. Buckley and L. Brent Bozell published a book in 1954 titled McCarthy and His Enemies.[56] They make the breath-taking assertion that "McCarthyism ... is a movement around which men of good will and stern morality can close ranks."[57]

Those who read are likely to have many valuable insights that nonreaders do not possess. Frequently it's difficult to identify these insights and determine their contributions. Reluctant readers give us another puzzle in that a lack of literacy does not necessarily slow one's career in this country. In the early period of our nation's history, Patrick Henry was not noted for his reading. Andrew Jackson was not a book person or a newspaper reader. J.P. Morgan, the Elder, did read. Charlie Crocker of the Southern Pacific Railroad, a brilliant but almost illiterate engineer, could barely read. Alben Barkley read very little, mostly bills before Congress, but his friends, Lister Hill and Harry Truman were great readers. Sam Rayburn read to improve on his brief formal education when he first came to Washington, D.C., but he read little, except bills, in his later years. Rayburn enjoyed his farm and fishing. Dwight Eisenhower read only Westerns and mysteries; he allegedly used his office when President to get advance proofs of a Western serial he had started. A. B. "Happy" Chandler, two-term governor from Kentucky, United States Senator, and Baseball Commissioner, has never been accused of reading anything except his press releases and some newspapers.[58]

To complicate matters there is evidence of influential people who were strong readers but received little formal education. H. L. Mencken, Eugene O'Neill, Harry Truman, John Steinbeck, William Faulkner, Woody Guthrie, and Eric Hoffer never earned a college degree. Hoffer never went past

the sixth grade, and Faulkner did not finish high school. However, each of these seven men had a significant person in their lives who urged reading. This influential person was their mother in most cases.

George Steiner, a respected intellectual, has published a worthy article on reading titled "Books in an Age of Post-Literacy" (1985).[59] Steiner claims "...we know astonishingly little about the history of reading, about the changes in economics, in the sociology, in the psychology, in the techniques and habits of feeling, even of physical action and attitude, which surround our reading of a book."[60] A decline in reading skills of the middle-class reader is Steiner's overwhelming concern. (Roger Farr reports, as of 1979: "The trend has been for a consistent increase in reading achievement at all grade levels since the time that test data information in the United States was first recorded." (Roger Farr quoted by Jeanne S. Chall, "Literacy: Trends and Explanations." American Education 20 (9), November 1984, pp. 16-22. A publication of the United States Department of Education, p. 17.) Nearly 80 percent of America's literate teenagers (some are educated young adults in universities can no longer read without an attendant noise--radio, television, record player or tape recorder.[61] Steiner observes that we know very little about simultaneous conflicting input, but a common sense hunch suggest profound alarm. The question of what future there is for the classic art of reading is a genuine concern to many professionals.

Steiner believes that art of reading will fall into three distinct categories:

1) Reading for distraction or momentary entertainment--the airport paperback is an example.
2) Reading for information or knowledge--what Thomas De Quincey called "the literature of knowledge" to distinguish it from fiction, poetry, and drama which he called "the literature of power."
3) Reading in the old, archaic, private mode. But this may become as specialized a skill and avocation as it was in libraries of monasteries during the Dark Ages.[62]

One of Steiner's fantasies is to abolish the humanities and liberal arts then convert our undergraduate universities into schools of reading.

According to Steiner, power in this country is going to belong to the alliterate. This process already seems to be in motion; it emerges as being obvious and threatening when a crisis or scandal exposes the interworkings of government or big business. Suddenly we are made aware that quite ordinary, unsophisticated minds have been at work subverting delicate policy and abusing their defined positions. A public trust is broken. This is more than just a temporary trauma, it amounts to a national disgrace. At this point our educational system should give itself some fresh, constructive criticism.

Reading and study of many levels does help to develop and foster certain qualities of leadership. Unfortunately it is not an infallible process. Educators and parents can influence the procedure in a positive or negative way. Much of Sir Winston Churchill's

literary knowledge was gained through self-education; he was a strong reader and had considerable encouragement to read from his mother.[63] Great Britain still publishes more serious book titles over any 12-month period than the United States. This fact may be one consequence of literacy identification that distinguishes Americans from the British.64

In this country a 1982 survey indicating how business and other professional spend their time on the job revealed: nine percent was spent on writing, 16 percent reading, 30 percent speaking, and 45 percent listening.[65] Based on this findings, professionals who do not read beyond job requirements will average 26 hours of reading each month exclusively in their work environment. Reluctant readers may not be achieving much when they are away from work. They will not be reading anything for self-improvement, for study and research, for knowledge, or for recreation (reasons people are motivated to read).[66] Reluctant readers will be missing some knowledge along with the unique experience of thoughtful study with books.

Summary

Recognition of the reluctant reader problem has not been ignored, particularly for elementary and pre-school stages of student development. A report from the Commission on Reading, published in 1985, had numerous recommendations aimed at producing citizens who would read with high levels of skill and do so frequently with satisfaction.[67] Among 17 Commission recommendations that have been published and discussed in scholarly publications were

requests that parents read to preschool children and for students to spend more time doing independent reading. Thoughtful advice.

While the problem of reluctant readers does get noticed, public attention along with government involvement seems to be fixed on illiterate adults.[68] It may be less difficult to make a strong reader of someone who does not know how to read than to undermine the rigid value system of a reluctant reader. Understanding and acquiring a value for reading is a most important factor in the furtherance of literacy. Aldous Huxley with his clean, direct wit said, "The problem of reform is the problem of breaking out of a vicious circle and of building up a virtuous one in its place."[69]

Our educational system and our social conditions are tied to each other. A breakdown in one reflects break down in the other. As an example, reluctant readers are visible symbols indicating our educational system has failed in some way, but our society often rewards nonreaders and in fact promotes them to quite responsible jobs in government and business.

In the 1950s Norman Cousins concluded that modern man is obsolete unless he can stop world wars. No matter how strong the technological imperative to peace may be, it cannot be followed without improving communication.[70] If everyone in the world could read but chose not to, we would soon lose our cultural heritage and probably be more vulnerable to human weaknesses (aggression, greed, et al.).

Although reading helps to promote literacy, it may also serve in various ways to moderate vicious human desires. In a world stocked with nuclear weapons, literate people may represent a way to reverse threatening systems produced from narrow, escalating technology. If there are not enough literate people to oversee or deal with human weaknesses, then what alternatives do we have? Are we destined to destroy earth?

A thoughtful Eugene O'Neill said, "The tragedy of life is what makes it worthwhile."[71] What happens to reluctant readers is of great concern to a nation that advocates education and has traditionally been committed to principles of the higher order. However, reluctant readers depict a reversal of our national education standard, and at the same time, they represent the best we have to offer in many fields. This strident, uncertain contrast should alert us to some probable flaws within our dynamic society.

Having a superior technical outlook without an active, literate perspective can denigrate our culture. If we cannot be an influential, literate state, our contentious technology may anonymously eclipse our desire to survive.

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Questioning Techniques For Teachers: Teaching Reading, Thinking, and Listening Skills

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Abstract

The role of questioning as a primary instructional technique is discussed in the context of research findings, models of questioning strategies. Specific applications.of this strategy in subject-matter areas are provided and a practical bibliography is supplied.for those wishing further information.

Any discussion of questioning should open with a question, so let us begin with "How many questions are asked nationwide during one fifty-minute class period?" While the answer must be an exorbitant number, more staggering is the reality that few of the teachers questioning were taught appropriate questioning strategies and almost no students are asking the questions.

Even given the fact that since the turn of the century we have had research indicating the importance of questioning in the classroom validating statements by Socrates, surprisingly few education methods books mention questioning. We teachers need to roll up our pedagogical shirt sleeves and get to the business of learning how to effectively teach

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reading, thinking, and listening skills by the knowledgeable use of questioning.

What do we know about questioning? Hunkins points out, "The question is perhaps the primary tool by which the individual processes information regardless of the diversity of his procedures." Further, Marksberry saw that questions:

1. Build inquiry and discovery skills
2. Arouse student interest and participation in self-directed learning
3. Build thinking skills
4. Increase perception and ability to think on discursive and non-discursive levels
5. Produce knowledge in response to questions. [2]

Certainly, we can look at these research conclusions and volumes of others like them and begin to understand the importance of questioning in classrooms, yet we still ask "What is the role of questions in the learning process?" Singer succinctly explains to us, "The objective of teaching comprehension is to have students learn to ask their own questions and guide their own thinking so that they can become independent in the process of reading and learning from text."[3] Cazden, also writing about the role of questions in education sees a twofold role:

(a) attempts to teach children to ask more productive questions, and
(b) attempts to change what happens in classrooms so that more of the children's learning will be based on

> questions which they themselves ask rather than on questions which are asked by the teacher.[4]

The concensus in the research literature indicates that judicial use of teacher questions and teaching children to question (1) allow the students to see appropriate modeling of how to question (and answer), (2) allow the students to practice questioning and answering with guidance and encouragement, and (3) allow the students to interact with information, not simply receive information.

Since we know that active involvement with information fosters more real learning, as teachers we should next ask, "What do we need to know in order to be good questioning models?" The effective questioner is aware of the level and type of questions constructed, as well as how to model, cue, accept student questions, and wait for answers.

Questions--Levels

There are almost as many taxonomies of information/comprehension levels as there are opinions on the relative worth of any political decision. The most useful taxonomy, however, is still Benjamin Bloom's Taxonomy of Educational Objectives (Cognitive):

1.00 Knowledge
2.00 Comprehension
3.00 Application
4.00 Analysis
5.00 Synthesis
6.00 Evaluation [5]

Arranged in order of lowest level of information to highest order of information manipulation, these categories provide the bases for all questions. These are all kinds of arguments for and against using higher or lower level questions. The major objective should be, however, to give all students an exposure to all levels of questions. The teacher can question on any of these levels with any age of student: Only the complexity of question design and student response changes because of the developmental stage of the student. For example, After reading a Robert Frost poem to my first grader, I can ask "What kind of a picture can you draw about this poem?" or I can ask my college students, "What kind fo a picture can you draw about history?" Both questions are at the Comprehension (translation) level on the taxonomy. Further examples of questions written to correspond to the objective level are as follow:

1. KNOWLEDGE

Objective: The student will be able to say the alphabet in correct order.

Question: Can you say the alphabet in order?

2. COMPREHENSION

Objective: The student will be able to recognize basic shapes so that when given various paper shapes he will identify a circle, a square, and a triangle.

Question: Can you tell me which is the triangle?

3. APPLICATION

Objective: The student will be able to compute the area of a given surface.

Question: How much fertilizer would we need to buy to cover the front lawn which is 40 feet wide and 150 feet long? The fertilizer bag

says that one pound covers 50 square feet?

4. ANALYSIS

Objectives: The student will be able to recognize bias in written communication.

Question: Can you tell me whether you find examples of bias in____? (Use a magazine article or book chapter) What is the bias?
How did you identify it?

5. SYNTHESIS

Objective: The student will be able to construct his/her philosophy of teaching based on readings in educational principles and theories.

Question: What is your educational philosophy?

6. EVALUATION

Objective: (See synthesis)

Question: Discuss your rationale for selecting and including certain principles and theories in your philosophy.

Many studies indicate that the level of the student responses is directly related to the level of the teacher's questions. In one study by Cole and Williams, in-class questioning was observed in grades two through six. Considerable correlation was found between the cognitive level, length and syntax of the student responses and the teacher's questions.[6] Unfortunately, Gall found in his review of teachers' questioning practices that teachers tend to use predominantly the literal level:

Studies of Teachers' Questioning Practices

1. Steven (1912): two-thirds of high school teachers' questions required only direct

recall

2. Haynes (1935): Seventy-seven percent of the questions in sixth-grade history were factual; seventeen percent required thinking
3. Corey (1940): Seventy-one percent of the questions in high school classes are factual; twenty-nine percent thoughtful
4. Floyd (1960): Forty elementary "best" teachers used factual questions forty-two percent of the time (Guzak, 1967 and Schreiber, 1967 found the same.)
5. Davis and Tinsley (1967): Of questions asked in the classrooms of gifted high school students, more than fifty percent were factual.[7]

We must break this historical clinging to the lowest level of information processing as we design more creative questions.

Questions--Types

What are the different types (functions) of questions? This factor focuses not on level, but on the purposes for the questions. In a recent study of questioning in college classrooms, I found:

1. Each faculty member has his/her own repertory of questioning types dictated by style, and perhaps, prior experience.
2. Faculty members are generally not aware of the many types of questions they use, nor of the unspoken messages within those questions.
3. Students spend an inordinate amount of time trying to figure out each faculty member's type (and purpose) of questions.[8]

Some of the types of questions and their puposes identified in the study are:

Information processing: to model how to use inductive logic to think about basic concepts within the specific discipline.

Attention: to induce active mental processing in class.

Reactive: to induce active participation (often physical) which leads the student to more concentrated thought about the subject being discussed.

Rhetorical: to identify a new unit of thought or to draw a conclusion.

Monitoring: to check student understanding.

Review: to repeat and organize the most important parts of a specific section of material.

Serial: to pose several questions in logical order to facilitate information processing.

Examination: to determine how much learning transpired.[9]

Examples of these types of questions are given in Appendix A.

Keeping in mind the fact that teachers are modeling the questions, it is interesting to note that in this study I observed students generally asking only these types of questions:

Clarification: to receive further information about facts or concepts just presented.

Monitoring: to check student understanding of information presented, as well as administrative detail. [10]

Why the discrepancy between the number of types of teacher questions and the student questions? Simply, the teachers did not spend any time teaching the students how to question by drawing attention to the questioning process. Teachers are too interested in spreading content. In fact, in one class, the instructor asked 115 questions in 45 minutes, and one student who was interviewed immediately after the class didn't think the teacher asked many questions. We need to explain to students why we are using certain questions and teach students to question within our discipline, too.

Questions--Models

How does one model questioning (and answering)? The best system to use is the Singer Phase-In, Phase-Out Model which is as appropriate for elementary classes as for graduate seminars. Learning can be facilitated, according to Singer, by (a) modeling of teacher-posed questions, (b) utilizing a phase-out/phase-in strategy where teachers model questions and the students gradually formulate their own questions, and (c) designing active comprehension whereby the teacher

1. Asks students a question that gets a question.
2. Asks students to ask the group questions.
3. Asks students to ask their own questions.[11]

Questions--Cues

We can also teach students to read and listen for question cues by using the Pearson and Johnson

Taxonomy for comprehension. Simply stated, the taxonomic categories are

> Text Explicit: Literal level. The fact answers are in the book.
>
> Text Implicit: Interpretive level. The answers are in the book, but the reader must draw conclusion.
>
> Script Implicit: Inferential level. The answers are not in the book. The student must use inferences to put various pieces together. [12]

An adaptation appropriate for the elementary student was made by Raphael who changed the terminology but not the concept in general. The younger students are taught to ask and look for answers to questions:

> Right There = Text Explicit
> Think and Search= Text Implicit
> On My Own= Script Implicit. [13]

Questions-Accepting Student Questions

Once we have given some preparatory work to designing the level and types of our questions, modeling appropriate questioning and responding, we must give students the opportunity to question. Unfortunately, Gall reports

> High frequencies of question use by teachers were also found in recent investigations: ten primary grade teachers asked an average of 348 questions each school day (Floyd, 1960); twelve elementary school teachers asked an average of 180 questions in a science lesson (Moyer,1965); and fourteen fifth-grade teachers asked an average of sixty-four questions each in thirty-minute social studies

lesson (Schreiber, 1967). [14]

Teachers are veritable question factories. In fact, Dillon points out that our classrooms often become centers of grand inquisition. [15] The students are so busy fielding questions, they don't have time to develop questions on their own, think of extended answers or think about the questioning process.

Questions--Waiting for Answers

Rowe's "Pausing Phenomena: Influences on the Quality of Instruction," presents results of seven years of work analyzing wait-time in over 300 classrooms. Rowe reports:

1. Mean pause between the end of teacher's question and when a student had to begin a response is one second.
2. After a student response, the teacher reacts or asks another question within 0.9 seconds.
3. Reward frequency is based on identification of better and poorer students.
   a. Poorer students received more overt praise for correct and incorrect responses.
   b. Better students are rewarded only for correct responses.
4. Positive student outcomes occur if a mean wait-time of three to five seconds is used.
5. Positive teacher outcomes occur if mean wait-time is increased. [16]

In a study on wait-time in an accounting classroom, I also found the stifling effect of a low wait-time; significant increases in student answers and student questions (higher level and more varied type) were noted when wait-time increased to ten seconds. [17]

In conclusion, teachers must consider not only the quality and amount of content, but they must consider the levels and types of questions being asked, as they design appropriate modeling, cueing, and responding strategies. Teachers must learn to wait for student answers and questions. If we can learn to juggle all of these skills simultaneously, then we will help our students to read, think, and listen.

Appendix A

Examples of Teacher-Specific Types of Questions

1. Information-Processing

Definition: to give basic information and to model how to think in this discipline using fact, links, probes (p. 178)

Example:

The teacher wrote BDOL on the board.

T: Which means what: Biological division of labor.

S: Each part has a function

T: What are some of the parts of a society?

S: Blue collar-white collar

T: What else do we have out there in the societal division of labor?

S: Churches.

T: Yeah, religious institutions. What else?

S: Family

The dialogue continues as the teacher draws a circle on the blackboard and fills in the pie-shaped slots with the

student's answers. As the pie becomes filled in, the teacher points to it and says,

T: That sounds reasonable enough, doesn't it? Let's look at the functionalist piece. Are they all good things? Aren't there a lot of things out there which aren't good?

The teacher and students list various things in society which aren't good.

T: If I say why are there schools, how would the functionalist answer?
S: They serve a function and contribute to the survival of the society.
T: Good. What if I said "crime"?
S: It contributes to the survival of the society.
T: OK, that would be the same answer, right? What about the logic of this approach? (pp.90-91)

2. Attention

Definition: Questions to induce active mental processing (p.178)

Example: (In a discussion about feral children)

T: "Haven't you ever been told when you were a kid, 'for Christ's sake act like a human being'?" (p. 95)

3. Reactive

Definition: Questions to induce active participation which leads the

students to greater concentration (p. 178)

Example: "The opposite of ethnocentrism is __." in chorus, the students supplied the answer (p.97)

4. Rhetorical

Definition: Questions to identify a new unit of thought or a conclusion. No answer is expected. (p. 178)

Example: "T. But aren't there some things out there that perhaps do not make any contributions to society? What I'm saying is, isn't the order perspective wrong?" (p. 101)

5. Monitoring

Definition: Questions to check students' understanding. (p. 178)

Example: "How are we doing?" "Anything else you need to know?" "Do you have any questions about this? (p. 102)

6. Review

Definition: Questions to repeat and organize the most important information (p. 178)

Example: "What do we know about this perspective so far?" (p. 103) (After three sessions on symbolic interactionism)

7. Serial

Definition: Several questions posed in logical

order with no answers until after the last question (p. 178)

Example: "Does that suggest that the way in which we punish crime is a social appendix; it does not make any contribution? If we quit doing it, would it make any difference? (p. 105)

Source: Kelly A. Hoxmeier, An Ethnographic Study of Questioning in College Classrooms, (Unpublished doctoral dissertation, The University of Iowa, 1984).

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Motivation of Students and Teachers

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Abstract

Motivation of students depends upon the teacher's ability to design instruction that (1) responds to student needs, (2) requires meaningful application, (3) makes the students active participants, and (4) uses teaching as the catalyst for learning. When the students are thus motivated, the teacher becomes more motivated in his/her planning and presentation.

Researchers can't gauge it; teachers bemoan the lack of it; students often don't have it--motivation. Wanting to know what makes students take an active part in the learning process, I asked my college students. They supplied so many answers so quickly that I could not write fast enough. Summarized, those students' recommendations were:

(1) Make learning responsive to needs
(2) Make learning meaningful
(3) Make learning active
(4) Make teaching the catalyst for learning.

For several years I've tried to use these recommendation in my teaching, and I've found that if the classroom takes into account the above four items, the strangest thing happens: students AND teachers catch motivation.

Make Learning Responsive to Basic Needs

This recommendation, of course, forces teachers to actually apply the Maslow Hierachy of Needs[1] memorized and forgotten so many years ago in Educational Psychology 100. To illustrate, students need security, and teachers can provide that safely by avoiding the use of fear. For example, I might emphasize the importance of following a process which will keep an injured child calm before surgery rather than saying "These steps in the calming process will be on the next test." We motivate by the positive, not the negative stimulus.

Students need approval to build their self-esteem. We must praise even small accomplishments and remind them of prior successes. This means we structure our classrooms for no-tricks success; sadly, this is a rather revolutionary idea. For example, we give the students lecture outlines and cassette tapes explaining (out of the plethora of words uttered) just which information we will be focusing on when we test. We can even model how to read and answer our essay questions.

Students desire creativity and fun. We teachers must structure learning to appeal to this need for playfulness. Students seem to remember prepositions much better when I draw on the blackboard a woodpile and a caricature mouse wearing oversized Nike tennis shoes then tell the students that "almost everything that mouse can do to that woodpile is a preposition--he goes under, through, into, behind... ." And participles seem much easier to remember and to

write if they are based on the sex life of a squirrel: "Driven by passion, the squirrel scurried to her lover's nest." These animalistic suggestions may never make headlines in College Composition, but they do let the students laugh and learn.

Make Learning Meaningful

Students need to understand why they are being given information, and we teachers must let the students know the value of information. Here's a test question for teachers to ask about every lesson: "Why am I teaching this?" Hopefully, a guilty conscience will help us eliminate the dated, the filler, the generally useless bits of information. Then we can honestly state the goal of the lesson.

Students need to understand how information links together. By virtue of years and experience, we intuitively see the links between new and old information. Students must be shown. We can say, "Remember back when we talked about XYZ? Now we will see how ABC evolved from XYZ."

Students need clearly designed assignments that give meaning to the information being learned. Some guiding questions for teachers are:

1. Is the assignment worthwhile?
2. Do the students understand why the assignment is being made?
3. Are the instructions clear, definite, reasonable?
4. Do the students have the necessary skills and background information to do the assignment?

Make Learning Active

Students need direct instruction. Singer's [2] phase-in/phase-out model of instruction activates student involvement. Simplified, the model's steps are:

1. Teacher introduces skill to be taught by description or action.
2. Teacher explains specific steps and demonstrates how the skills or concept works.
3. Teacher gives another similar problem and invites students to help in completing the steps.
4. Teacher gives another problem. Students complete steps with minimal cueing.
5. Students design a similar problem and complete steps with no cueing.
6. Students restate and explain basic skill or concept.

Students also need discovery learning in order to gain problem-solving strategies. The Problem Methods[3] developed at the University of Iowa lists these steps in this discovery method:

1. Learner becomes aware of the problem.
2. Learner defines and delimits the problem.
3. Learner gathers evidence to help solve the problem.
4. Learner forms hypothesis of solution.
5. Learner tests hypothesis.
6. Learner solves the problem or repeats steps 2-5.

I have used this method with success in a children's literature course I teach. Rather than give a lecture on criteria for children's periodicals, I have the students"

1. Become Aware of Problem...
   teacher stresses need to use a variety of literary forms, including periodicals, with children
2. Define Problem...
   students prepare questions on what they wish to know about periodicals for children
3. Gather Evidence...
   students work in groups assessing different periodicals for children, searching for answers to their questions
4. Form Hypothesis...
   students prepare a report for the entire class
5. Test Hypothesis...
   students check answers by comparing observations and assessments
6. Solve Problem...
   students finalize answers to questions.

Students and teachers, thus, share special, motivated discoveries. Ranger Rick never looks the same after this unit!

Make Teaching the Catalyst for Learning.

Students need teaching artists. Teachers truly are the verbal designers of knowledge, so we perfect our acting abilities. We use vocal expression and body expression to make knowledge come to life; we help draw imaginative pictures of our discipline.

Students need skilled practitioners in the art of teaching. That means we put into practice what research proves works in the classroom.

. We seek precise examples.
. We develop improvisation abilities.
. We give students time to think.
. We give students an opportunity to ask questions.
. We respond to student learning patterns: Are these students group or solitary learners?
. Are these students visual or auditory learners?
. We design every learning segment into a cognitive pattern:

Review-What we've learned before
Preview-What we're going to learn today
Teach-What we're learning today
Practice-What we do with today's learning
Review-What we learned today
Preview-What we will do tomorrow.

Finally, students need role models. We can share our experiences. We can show our love of learning and teaching. We can show the students how to learn.

Conclusion

We teachers can learn muchfrom students about motivation by giving responsiveness to basic needs, meaningful life experiences, active involvement, and excitement in teaching. Think of it... motivation to learn is a communicable educational disease!

Motivational Suggestions

What Might Be Done

1. Make Learning Responsive to Student Needs (Maslow[1])

	How To.....
*Need for Security	Avoid the use of fear Emphasize positive
*Need for Approval, Self-Esteem	Praise even small accomplishments Remind them of successes, goals Structure for success (no tricks)
*Need for Creativity, Fun	Get students to ask "Why?" Puzzle them into asking what will happen next (preview) suspense Creative structure of important concepts

2. Make Learning Meaningful

* Value of Information	Let students know how you feel the information is important, valuable (Can you answer the questions "why?"?) Keep reminding the value in short and

	long term Describe active situations when you have used the information
*Information Links	Show link with prior knowledge
*Assignment Design	Questions to Ask About Each Assignment 1. Is it worthwhile? 2. Does it seem worthwhile to the students? 3. Is it clear to the student? 4. Is it definite? 5. Is it reasonable? 6. Does the pupil know how to prepare it? 7. Does the student have the necessary skills and background to do the assignment?
3. Make Learning Active	Harry Singer
*Direct Instruction (Phase-In, Phase-Out Method[2])	(T) introduce skill to be taught by description or action (T) explain specific steps (T) demonstrate how

skill works
(T and Ss) work together on an example
(T) formulates a similar problem or example
(Ss) apply new knowledge
(Ss) restate and explain basic components

*Discovery Strategies (the Problem Method the University of Iowa[3])

1. Learner aware of a problem
2. Learner defines and delimits the problem
3. Learner gathers evidence to help solve the problem
4. Learner forms hypothesis of solution
5. Learner tests hypothesis
6. Learner solves or repeats steps 2, 3, 4, 5

4. Make Teaching the Catalyst for Learning

*Teacher-Artist — Verbal Designer of Knowledge

	Acting Techniques
	Body Movement
	Voice Projection
	Non-verbal Communication
	Role-playing
	Expressiveness
	Humor
	Whimsey
	Contentedness
	Pleasure
	Concern
	Imaginativeness
*Teacher-Technician	Teach to Maximize Learning
	Review
	Preview
	Teach
	Practice
	Review
	Preview
	Seek precise examples
	Stimulative interest
	Develop ability to improvise
	Give Ss breathing spaces
	Give Ss opportunity for questions
	Be sensitive to Ss's learning patterns
*Teacher-Role Model	Share experiences
	Show love of

learning, teaching
Show how to
approachand course
Show human feelings

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Using the Nelson-Denny to Measure the Effectiveness of Sixteen Textbooks

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Abstract

In this article the authors discuss the effectiveness of different texts used in their well organized and effective lab. They report the amount of gain achieved by students using different texts for various proposes and provide a thoughtful evaluation of the strengths and weaknesses of fifteen manuals they have used in their program.

Introduction

The Personalized Achievement Lab of Muskegon Community College uses individualized instruction in its reading courses allowing us to experiment with many different texts and workbooks. For the past several years we have used pre- and post-Nelson-Denny scores to evaluate the effectiveness of assigned texts.

The procedure has been simple but time consuming: at the end of each given semester a paraprofessional goes through all the Student Record Forms, figures out the growth in vocabulary and

comprehension of each student, notes which text or texts were used by the student, then lists that gain (or loss) under the appropriate title. The aggregate is brought up to date each semester and the average of these gains or losses is then figured. We now have the program computerized to save wear and tear on paraprofessionals. Enclosure I is a chart showing mean gains for each text.

COMPARISONS

If we consider that anything over a 1.0-year-gain in a 15-week semester is an indication of good growth and 1.5 or better is an indication of very good growth, we can draw some generalizations and conclusions:

1. Most text books do what they were intended to do: vocabulary texts raise vocabulary scores and comprehension texts raise comprehension scores. "Pure" vocabulary texts (Keys to a Powerful Vocabulary, Programmed Vocabulary, Picking Out the Pieces) are successful at raising vocabulary scores but not outstanding at raising comprehension.

	Mean Vocabulary	Mean Comprehension
Keys to a Powerful Voc.	1.7	0.6
Programmed Vocabulary	1.3	-0.3
Expanding Your Vocabulary	1.1	0.2
Picking Out the Pieces	1.6	1.6

(See note #2 under "weakness of the study.")

2. Pure comprehension texts (Bridging the Gap, Reading Skills for College Study, Making Your Way) are quite good at raising comprehension scores but not outstanding at raising vocabulary.

	Vocabulary	Comprehension
Bridging the Gap	1.0	2.5
Reading Skills for College Study	0.5	2.5
Making Your Way	.6	2.0

3. Most of the texts which make a serious attempt to teach both vocabulary and comprehension do just that:

	Vocabulary	Comprehension
Reading Drills	1.1	2.1
Six-Way Paragraphs	1.0	2.1
Improve Your Reading Ability	1.1	1.5
Bridging the Gap	1.0	2.5
Structured Reading	1.1	2.1

But one has a different record:

	Vocabulary	Comprehension
Reading Skills Handbook	.6	2.4

The gains from Reading Skills Handbook are interesting because while the book includes a unit devoted to vocabulary development WE DON'T ASSIGN IT; it makes the book too long. It would be interesting to assign this section to some students just to see if the vocabulary scores would increase.

4. It might be noted that the two books devoted exclusively to building up speed (Picking Up the Pace and Personalizing Reading Efficiency) probably do

that job well, but neither is impressive for building vocabulary or comprehension.

	Vocabulary	Comprehension
Picking Up the Pace	0.8	1.2
Personalizing Reading Efficiency	.05	1.1

Contrary to advertising hype, concentration on increasing speed alone does not necessarily increase comprehension significantly. It would be interesting to know if these speeded readers answer more questions on their post- than on their pre- test. If so, and one would assume it would be so, their percent of correct answers might have gone down.

5. While the largest books produced good to excellent gains,

	Vocabulary	Comprehension
Bridging the Gap(283 pp.)	1.0	2.5
Reading Skills Handbook (425pp)	0.6	2.4
Structured Reading (361 pp.)	1.1	2.1

nevertheless, the length and encyclopedic endeavors of a text did not directly relate to its effectiveness. Some short books did quite well:

	Vocabulary	Comprehension
Six-Way Paragraphs (Adv.) (237 pp.)	1.0	2.1
Reading Drills (189 pp.)	1.1	2.1
Improve Your Reading Ability (173 pp.)	1.1	1.5
Picking Out the Pieces (38 pp.)	1.6	1.6

(See note #2 below)

6. The comparisons show clearly that it is easier to raise comprehension scores than vocabulary scores. Our five best gains show this dramatically:

Vocabulary (5 best)	Comprehension (5 best)
1.7	2.5
1.6	2.5
1.4	2.4
1.3	2.1
1.1	2.1

Indeed, our seventh-best comprehension increase is still better than our best vocabulary increase.

WEAKNESS OF THE STUDY

These are not immaculate gains; all research is cluttered.

1. We assign different books to different levels of students. Our poorest readers are assigned Reading Drills and Six-Way Paragraphs for developing comprehension.

Our best readers use Reading Skills Handbook, Bridging the Gap, and Improve Your Reading Ability for comprehension.

For vocabulary development our lowest readers use Picking Out the Pieces, Reading Drills, and Six-Way Paragraphs.

Our middle ability students use Keys to a Powerful Vocabulary.

Our best readers use Programmed Vocabulary.

In order of difficulty the vocabulary texts might read (beginning with the easiest):

	Voc. gains
1. Picking Out the Pieces	1.6
2. Six-Way Paragraphs (Mid)	0.9
3. Reading Drills	1.1
4. Keys to a Powerful Vocabulary	1.7
5. Programmed Vocabulary	1.3

If there is a pattern here, it is elusive.

Comprehension texts in order of difficulty beginning with the easiest:

	Comp. gains
1. Six-Way Paragraphs (Mid)	0.4
2. Reading Drills	2.1
3. Improve Your Reading Ability	1.5
4. Reading skills Handbook	2.4
5. Bridging the Gap	2.5

Again, a pattern of significant gains is not apparent.

2. We often assign more than one text or workbook. Picking Out the Pieces is assigned along with Reading Drills, Six-Way Paragraphs, and occasionally one of the others. This probably accounts for its association with good gains in comprehension since its focus is pure vocabulary. Reading Drills and Six-Way Paragraphs are occasionally assigned together.

Making Your Way is always assigned along with other text books, often Improve Your Reading

Ability, Personalizing Reading Efficiency, and Reading Skills Handbook.

	Comp. gains
Improve Your Reading Ability	1.5
Personalizing Reading Efficiency	1.1
Reading Skills Handbook	2.4
Making Your Way	2.0

It is difficult to assess the actual value of a workbook as small as Making Your Way in such cases. It is even possible that it doesn't contribute anything at all.

CONCLUSIONS

In spite of the weaknesses, we believe our Rate a Book charts are valuable in assigning textbooks. We have dropped texts because of their poor showings (Word Power) and have increased our use of others (Keys to a Powerful Vocabulary). Some books such as Reading Skills for College Study changed their format in subsequent editions; we didn't like the new format in spite of the past good records, so we dropped the book.

The charts give something close to empirical data which increases our trust in the efficacy of certain texts but brings down to earth our expectations.

The following steps are used to determine Rate A Book's aggregated figures.

First, the difference between each student's pre- and post- Nelson-Denny vocabulary and comprehension scores is found.

Example: Student's Scores

	Pre	Post	Variance
Voc.	15.6	16.6	1.0
Comp.	9.4	15.6	6.2

Second, the variances for vocabulary and comprehension are entered into the computer by utilizing Express Calc. Express Calc by Express Ware is a spreadsheet computer program similar to Lotus 1-2-3. The spreadsheet used for Rate A Book has a vocabulary and comprehension file for each book.

Example: Book Files

	Voc.	Comp.
	WPME	WPME
	-2.2	-2.2
	-0.3	0.4
	.0	2.1
	.1	2.7
Count	4	4
Mean	-0.6	0.8
Median	-0.2	1.3

After the information is entered for each book, Express Calc proceeds to arrange, count, and average the aggregated figures for each file. The median is then found by hand. The files are put into ascending order according to the aggregated mean for vocabulary and comprehension.

Finally, Rate A Book is updated for another semester.

"RATE A BOOK"
Winter 1984 - Winter1987

Vocabulary

Number of Students	Book Title	Mean	Median
65	Keys To A Powerful Voc. - Maker/Lenier	1.7	1.8
159	Picking Out the Pieces-Goodman	1.6	1.5
18	Six-Way Paragraphs-Pauk	1.4	1.0
42	Programmed Vocabulary-Brown	1.3	.85
48	Expanding Your Vocabulary-Goodman	1.1	0.9
27	Improve Your Reading Ability-Heilman	1.1	0.9
94	Reading Drills - Fry	1.1	0.9
39	Structured Reading-Troyka	1.1	1.4
39	Six-Way Paragraphs, Adv.-Pauk	1.0	1.1
30	Bridging the Gap-Smith	1.0	0.9
12	Six-way Paragraphs, Mid-Pauk	0.9	0.6
14	Picking Up the Pace-Smith	0.8	0.7
42	Making Your Way-Goodman	0.6	0.7
57	Reading Skills Handbook -Wiener/Bazerman	0.6	0.6
42	Personalizing Reading Efficiency-Miller	0.5	0.4
10	Reading Skills For College Study Shepherd	0.5	0.6
4	Word Power Made Easy-Lewis	-0.6	-0.2

Research by Carol Neal

"RATE A BOOK"
Winter 1984 - Winter 1987

Comprehension

Number of Students	Book Title	Mean	Median
30	Bridging the Gap - Smith	2.5	2.5
10	Reading Skills for College Study Shepard	2.5	2.4
57	Reading Skills Handbook-Wiener/Bazerman	2.4	2.5
94	Reading Drills - Fry	2.1	2.05
39	Six-Way Paragraphs, Ave.-Pauk	2.1	1.9
39	Structured Reading-Troyka	2.1	2.0
42	Making Your Way- Goodman	2.0	1.6
159	Picking Out The Pieces-Goodman1	.6	1.5
27	Improve Your Reading Ability-Heilman	1.5	1.4
18	Six-Way Paragraphs -Pauk	1.4	0.9
14	Picking Up the Pace-Smith	1.2	1.4
42	Personalizing Reading Efficiency-Miller	1.1	1.2
4	Word Power Made Easy -Lewis	0.8	1.3
65	Keys to a Powerful Vocabulary-Maker/Lenier	0.6	0.8
12	Six-Way Paragraphs, Mid-Pauk	0.4	0.2
48	Expanding Your Vocabulary Goodman	0.2	.55
42	Programmed Vocabulary-Brown	-0.3	.05

Researched by Carol Neal

Description of Books and Workbooks

1. Beukema, MacLear, Goodman. Basic Phonics for Adults

A program of basic phonics involving a series of units accompanied by tapes. All lessons, all exercises, all directions are read on tape as they appear in the text. Student is expected to follow along, mark where appropriate. Some self-checking exercises, some instructor checked. Follows systematic plan and concentrates on vowel sounds, using many examples and many rules. For the very poorest college readers. The low-showing on the Nelson-Denny might be blamed on the extremely low readers assigned to this text whose progress is not at a level accurately measured by a college level test and by the fact that this was at an experimental stage at the time.

Weakness: Too basic for most students but for the slowest students may give a much-needed base of word-attack skills. However, it is long and the tiny steps would be boring for anyone who already knows an assortment of phonics skills and merely needs a brush-up. This program intends to teach first-time phonics.

8 1/2" x 11" 132 pp. $13.95 Kendall-Hunt (Marketed Fall, 1987)

2. Smith. Bridging the Gap: Scott, Foresman & Co., 1981.

Textbook-workbook designed to help students make the transition from the reading class to college textbook reading. Both reading and study skills are incorporated. Ten chapters cover concentration, vocabulary, overviewing, sentence unraveling, underlining, main point, outlining, inference, bias,

and graphic illustrations. Each chapter includes a skill lesson with exercises and three reading selections. These readings are from college textbooks and from varied content areas. Comprehension, vocabulary, and word part questions follow each selection. Readability of selections: Grade Level 10-14. Mostly staff corrected; parts of chapters 3, 4, and 6 are self-corrected. Chapter tests (selected from Teacher's Manual) available in test file. Comprehension questions cover one selection, vocabulary/word part questions pull from all three selections.

Weakness: Some underlining examples are poor; student need to know this and see Pauk's examples. Use care in assigning this text. Most effective with motivated student scoring high on Nelson-Denny vocabulary and low in comprehension. Consumable.

7 1/4" x 9 1/4" 283pp. $13.95

3. Goodman, Donald. Expanding Your Vocabulary: Muskegon Community College, 1982.

Workbook designed to develop three skills: (1) Using mnemonics to build vocabulary; (2) Learning dictionary abbreviations and derivations, and (3) Using the Index of Indo-European roots in the American Heritage Dictionary. Exercises checked by staff. Final exam.

Weakness: Very specialized in scope; also the new American Heritage has abandoned the Index of Indo-European roots. Nevertheless, the exploration of this Index gives the reader a tremendous sense of antiquity, a glimpse at the incredible journey some

words have taken over the eons. We keep an older dictionary on hand.

8 1/2" X 11" 31 pages $1.49

4. Heilman, Arthur. Improve Your Reading Ability, 3rd. edition, 1976.

An eclectic, lively approach to teaching comprehension and vocabulary. Covers rate, analogies, maxims-proverbs, fact-opinion statements, agree-disagree statements. Some questions answered in back, some must be interpreted by instructor. Most students enjoy the book. For better students (We use 10th grade or above). We made up a final test.

Weakness: vocabulary exercises are too overwhelming, presenting too many words and teaching too few. Really tries to do too much. Now replaced by an expanded 4th edition: same criticisms. Must be consumed.

8 1/2" x 11" - 3rd edition: 148 pages -$9.50
4th edition: 173 pages-$14.95

5. Maker, Janet and Lenier, Minnette. Keys to a Powerful Vocabulary: Prentice-Hall, 1982.

A workbook-textbook for college students. It attempts to 1) teach "words most essential to college students," 2) develop skills for improving vocabulary, ie. dictionary use, word parts, etymology, thesaurus usage, 3) "make students excited about words." Cartoons, puzzles, games. Answer key.

We use vocabulary cards to drill on the words listed and on the roots in chapters 7, 8, 9. We also

have three computer-generated tests which the PALab made up. Book must be consumed.

Weakness: A large number of words presented in short time; students can cheat. Needs supplementary tests.

8 1/2' x 11" 235 pp. $16.25

6. Goodman, Donald. Making Your Way. Muskegon Community College, 1985.

A comprehension workbook now in development stage. Stresses what words do in a sentence rather than what they are called. Touches punctuation (not rules so much as function), the course of thought, shapes of paragraphs, and techniques for answering test questions. Author is now working on a unit of careful analytical reading. Three tests. Workbook must be consumed.

Weakness: Still experimental. May lack sufficient exercises and drill. Several errors; indication of hasty writing.

8 1/2" x 11" Chpts. 1,2,3,4 $2.06

7. Miller, Lyle. Personalizing Reading Efficiency: Minneapolis, Burgess Publishing Company, 1981.

A condensed version of Miller's basic text style which has been popular for decades. This is a model speed-improvement book: exercises in word recognition; word-meaning; phrase meaning; well-

chosen, interesting articles of 800 and 1300 words followed by M/C questions. Miller's book could be a part of successful speed reading program, but only a part. We also use machines (Really; EDL and CRAIG), Jamestown timed readings, College Reading Programs (SRA), and sometimes the old Look 20-day course. Personalizing Reading Efficiency must be consumed.

Weakness: The style hasn't changed in 20 years, and the hype sounds a little Evelyn Wood-ist (the charts in back go up to 6000 WPM). The articles have a conservative, easy-going in Western flavor, which is not a criticism, except, maybe for those who want to read about social trauma and slums. Also, this book develops speed, not vocabulary, not comprehension. Speed.

8 1/2" x 11" 197 pp. $14.95

8. Goodman, Donald. Picking Out the Pieces: Muskegon Community College, 2nd edition, 1984.

A workbook-style crash course for college students who need attack skills: phonics, affixes, roots. Attempts to give students minimal basic training or review in a few skills with the hope that most of their drill and practice will be done in the students' own books in other courses. Six separate unit tests. Answers to some drill work in the book. Must be consumed.

Weakness: Extremely brief exposure, limited drill.

8 1/2" x 11" 38 pp. $1.78

9. Brown, James I. Programmed Vocabulary 2nd and 3rd editions: Prentice Hall, 1980.

A highly structured program (answers found in the right margin). Uses 34 very short chapters (4 to 7 pages) to teach 20 prefixes and 14 roots. Contains a poorly-placed diagnostic test on pp. 5-10. We use it as a final exam. Has periodic review exercises. We have made up tests for every chapter and are pleased with both the book and the tests. This book is for better readers (10th grade up). Need not be consumed.

Weakness: needs additional tests, which we made. Is far too difficult for poor readers. Also, if you use pre-post Nelson-Denny tests you may be disappointed: the book causes students to slow down and observe the prefixes along the way, which is death on a 14-minute vocabulary test. We ran a study in 1976 on 27 students who had gone through Programmed Vocabulary. Eight of the 27 (29%) scored lower on the post-test than the pre. Of the eight, one student answered more questions on the post than on the pre-test, one answered the same number, and six answered fewer questions. Median difference was five fewer questions. This is not a criticism of the book, simply a caution.

7" x 9" 261 pp. $16.95

10. Fry, Edward B. Reading Drills: Jamestown, 1975.

Workbook to develop comprehension. Uses traditional-style story of about 1000 words, followed by M/C comprehension questions, matching vocabulary exercises, also Cloze exercises in each of its 30 lessons. We accept synonyms for the Cloze exercises but grade the sections in the presence of the student, explaining WHY we accept or reject a substitute word and pointing out errors in thinking or the overlooking of punctuation. Stories are written at grade levels 7 through 10, but they seem easier. I assign the book to those reading 5th to 10th grade level. We have made one final exam which has a matching vocabulary test and samples of Cloze exercises from this book. Book must be consumed. Answers in back.

Weakness: Some students cheat all through it, even when I deliver the homily about the impossibility of coming up with all the right answers all the time, and about learning from your mistakes. I would think the illustrations too juvenile and insulting for adults, but I find about half my students shading in the pictures as if it were a coloring book. Also, author pushes speeded reading which remedial readers can do without. All in all a good book though.

8" x 10 1/2" 189 pages $10.00

11. Wiener, Bazerman. Reading Skills Handbook: Boston, Houghton Mifflin Company, 2nd edition 1982, 3rd edition, 1985.

We were impressed by the 2nd edition, slightly less moved by the 3rd. Both books have covers that

say CLASS, even though the 3rd edition is printed on dull, pulpy paper.. Both have a vocabulary section which attempts to do too much in too little time. Our Nelson-Denny scores indicated that this text is among our best for building comprehension. The comprehension instruction sections are beautifully done, well balanced, interesting, and TOUGH. The book needs to be used with a lot of feedback. Covers main ideas, inferences, slanted writing, careful reading. Also a rushed section in study skills which we ignore. Last half of the book consists of 25 short articles with questions. They cover a wide span: poetry to current science, and most are brisk, spry, and buoyant. All in all a fine text. Must be consumed. Needs teacher correcting: no answers in the back.

Weakness: Is getting overly large. Vocabulary and study skills sections spread too thin. This is no book for really weak readers: 10th grade or above-far above.

6 1/2" x 9 1/4" 2nd edition 346 pp $9.00
3rd edition 425 pp $18.95

12. Pauk, Walter. Six-Way paragraphs: Jamestown, 1974.

A workbook-textbook designed to teach comprehension skills. Uses 100 to 150 word passages, followed by six patterned questions involving main idea, details, conclusions, clarifying devices (always the hardest for students), and vocabulary. Answer key in the book. Need not be consumed if you can make up answer sheets.

7" x 10" 100 passages-222 pp.

Out-of-print (replaced by middle and advanced editions).

13. Pauk, Walter. Six-Way Paragraphs Middle level (Grades 4-8) and Advanced level (Grades 8-12).

Each contains 100 passages of approximately 200 words each, followed by question similar to those found in the original text. Charts, answer keys in the back. Need not be consumed if you create answer sheets.

Weakness: Students often cheat. Need supplementary exercises for quizzes for tests. Also, once the book explains how to go about answering the questions, there is no follow-up, no additional advice after p.22.

7" x 10" 237 pp. $9.00

14. Troyka, Structured Reading: Prentice-Hall, 1984

A text-workbook designed to develop comprehension and vocabulary. Intended to lead from literal to inferential meaning and to critical thinking. The thirty selections are followed by questions: vocabulary, central theme, major details, inference, critical reading, informed opinion. Selections are from 450-2300 words and are narration, exposition, argumentation; three are college text extracts. Grade level: 6-10, one at grade level 14 (Fry index-hand

calculated). Divided into five parts, six selections each. Each part is preceded by Thinking: Getting Started; a picture and question related to selections. Each part is followed by Writing: Expressing yourself, suggested paragraph writing. Book is consumable. Answers in Teachers' Manual.

Weakness: Skill instruction is done in the first eighteen pages; student needs to review and study segments when he has difficulty with particular skills. Dept. corrected. Five vocabulary quizzes for Selections 1-6, 7-12, 13-18, 19-24, 25-30 in test file.

6 3/4" x 9" 361 pp. $18.15

15. Lewis, Norman. Word Power Made Easy: New York, Pocket Books, 1978.

A pocket-sized drill book, well-designed, lively chapters ("How to Talk About Doctors," "About Scientist," "About Liars and Lying." "How to Insult Your Enemies"). Appears to do a good job of introducing new words, drilling on them, usin diminishing prompts, reviews, tests. Words are fairly difficult. Consumable.

Weakness: Those who use it seldom show improvement on the Nelson-Denny test. We've quit using the book, even though most users enjoyed it.

4" x 7" 527pp $4.95

Collaborative Learning in Higher Education

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Adult students returning to school are having an impact on the organization and character of higher education. These students are demanding that instruction be altered in keeping with their different learning styles. Student involvement in the learning process is becoming the touchstone of the new methodology of teaching and manifests itself most obviously in the collaborative learning model described in this article. In this discussion Professor Stronks reviews applications of collaborative learning in traditional classrooms.

There has long been the feeling in higher education that if we only get the organization of it right then everything else will fall into place. University faculties have been convinced that if administrators would arrange instructional blocks in creative ways designed by individual faculty members for specific courses, most instructional problems would be solved.

Only recently have some faculty members begun to realize that the answer to instructional problems lies much closer to home. This realization has been forced on them by adult students who have returned to begin or to complete degree programs after a number of years away from school. In the United States these new students have shown that they are very aware of instructional situations which help or hinder them in learning, and they are outspoken

concerning the need for better instruction in higher education.

This phenomenon of learning from students the need for different instructional strategies has happened before in higher education. During the 1950's, Korean veterans who became undergraduate students were critical of the lack of relevancy of college instruction to the world which they knew. In the 1960's students again became critical of the irrelevancy of the instruction which they were receiving and demanded the right to evaluate those doing the instructing. Older returning students are more sophisticated concerning the way in which they learn and are demanding that instruction be in keeping with different learning styles. Students of the future are likely to be even more insistent that instructional strategies suited to different learning preferences be used in higher education. An important aspect of instruction in higher education in the future will be the learning and practicing of new instructional strategies on the part of faculty members.

Student Involvement in Learning

A report of the United States Department of Education, studying conditions of excellence in American higher education, stated that students learn best when they are actively involved in the learning process. (1) The report stated that there is a great deal of research to suggest that the more intensely students engage in their own education, the greater will be their growth and achievement and the more likely they are to continue their learning after college. Highly

involved students devote considerable energy to studying, participate actively in student organizations, and interact frequently with faculty and peers.

The report went on to suggest that faculty should make greater use of active modes of teaching and require that students take greater responsibility for their learning. Lectures can be useful, economical, and effective. But research suggests that a mix of teaching styles can be a more effective device for increasing involvement. One of the most involving instructional procedures is collaborative learning.

Collaborative Learning

Collaborative learning, the working together of two or more individuals, brings a different dimension to the project at hand. Faculty members have collaborated across disciplinary lines within an institution to create interdisciplinary courses and faculty members from the same discipline have collaborated for the purpose of doing research.

In recent years, the idea of collaboration has been applied to the instructional setting itself. In such situations, students are drawn into working relationships with other students under the guidance of a faculty member. These learning situations have come to replace some of the traditional didactic instructional modes .

Collaborative learning is known by many names: cooperative learning, peer tutoring, group

learning or mentoring. It has been used to help students learn new concepts, review concepts which have already been taught, anc to teach them how to solve problems. Collaborative learning focuses on learning rather than on teaching. As an instructional strategy, collaborative learning takes just as much careful planning as does traditional, didactic instruction.

Collaborative learning has only recently begun to interest university teachers. The developmental theories of Vygotsky and Piaget have contributed greatly to the understanding of the potential benefits of peer instructional groups by hypothesizing how social interactional forms affect higher cognitive functions. Particularly helpful has been the recognition that reflective thought is conversation internalized.

Vygotsky explained that we first learn the skill and partnership of conversation in dialogue with other people. Only then do we learn to use that skill in engaging in silent dialogue with ourselves, imagining the parts of the other participants in the conversation. Thought is internalized conversation.

One of the earliest descriptions of the use of collaborative learning can be found in Anatomy of Judgment, in which Dr. M.J. Abercrombie of the University College, University of London, describes ten years of training medical students using this strategy. (2) Abercrombie suggests that in medical practice, diagnosis of illnesses is better learned collaboratively in small groups of students than it is by students working individually. Abercrombie had

groups work through exercises in perception, explaining what they perceived and why they perceived what they did. Then she had the groups examine a patient together, discuss the case as a group, and arrive at a consensus concerning the diagnosis. She found that students who learned diagnosis collaboratively became better diagnosticians than those who learned diagnosis individually.

At the present time collaborative problem solving groups are the foundation of instruction in a number of medical schools throughout the western world. The University of Limburgh in The Netherlands and McMaster University Medical School in Canada are examples. Most recently Harvard University Medical School is experimenting with a group of students in this type of learning.

In most of these cases instruction by collaborative learning involved an organizational change in the institution. Are such organizational changes necessary before collaborative problem solving can be used? Not necessarily. Since organizational changes create their own problems, perhaps the future of this instructional strategy lies in its use in the traditional university classroom setting.

Collaborative Learning in Traditional Higher Education Classes

In response to the demand of students in the 1960's for more relevancy in instruction, different forms of collaborative learning were introduced in traditional universities. Many of these forms were

found to be nonproductive and a waste of the student's time. They were often held suspect by traditional college faculty who did not understand the research behind the use of such strategies and who called such ventures "exercises in pooled ignorance".

Research, however, has shown that students' work tends to improve when they get help from peers. Not only that, but the peers offering the help learn from the students they are helping and from the activity of helping, itself. Collaborative learning, in its best sense, is a powerful force but has largely been ignored by university faculty.

Students learn to think in the ways they learned to talk. When students learn the content of any domain, they come to understand how knowledge is established and maintained in the "normal discourse" of people who are knowledgeable in that domain. In his book, Is there a Text in this Class? The Authority of Interpretive Communities, Stanley Fish says that this normal discourse is the source of our thought and of the meanings we produce through language. (3)

We expect our students to be able to do more than simply summarize what other minds have said on the topic. We expect them to do critical thinking, to have their own ideas and responses, and to cite evidence for those opinions and responses. But our expectations will not be realized unless students have had many experiences with verbalizing their ideas in oral language, stating their own judgments, stating the evidence on which those judgments rest, and explaining why they value that evidence.

According to Bruffee (4), our task is to engage our students in conversation among themselves at many points in the listening, reading, and writing processes. The way they talk with each other determines the way they will think and the way they think determines the way they will write.

In the literature concerning instruction in higher education, it is clear that most faculty members appear to believe that "class discussion" is one of the most effective ways of teaching. In surveys of university students across the United States, 90% of them stated that their instructors tried to encourage class discussion. But when asked who did the discussing in class, these same students said, "Mostly it is the instructor and sometimes about five or six students. Almost always the same students in any given class."

If we believe that conversation leads to internalized conversation which is thought, which in turn is expressed in further conversation and in writing, then we must arrange for instructional strategies in our classes which will ensure that every student (not just the five or six brightest) will be involved in talking in the language of the discipline.

In higher education, it is extremely likely that the reflective thinking which students do concerning a discipline depends greatly on the extent to which they are given the opportunity to speak in the language of that discipline. In addition, Perry has suggested that it is highly likely that students are able to move more

easily forward in intellectual development if they are given the opportunity to talk with others concerning how their thinking is changing as a result of the new information received from their experience in different disciplines. (5)

Instructional Strategies for Collaborative Learning in Traditional Classrooms

It is highly likely that future instruction in colleges and universities will include a great deal of collaborative learning, not only because students will demand it, but because it is an excellent means for involving students in their own learning.

In order for such strategies to work well, I have found that I must inform the students concerning why we are using these procedures. I simply explain to them the need for them to converse if they are going to think about the concepts of that subject .

Because collaborative learning usually involves problem solving, students working in groups must be prepared for problem solving assignments and students need to be lead to the point where they can solve problems collaboratively. One simple procedure for involving every student in conversation prior to problem solving is this: after explaining a concept, ask the student to pair with someone close at hand. One student explains the same concept to the other student. It is the task of the other student to ask questions and to add information until both are convinced that all aspects of the concept have been covered. There are two objectives for this procedure.

One is for clarification, to make certain that the students have understood the explanation of the concept. The other is to make certain every student is involved in conversation concerning the concept.

When using this strategy, the pairs are different each time. The first time students pair with the person sitting next to them. The next time the person in every odd row turns around and talks with the person behind. A little imaginative work will do wonders. Not only it is essential that the students understand why they are doing this activity, is also essential that the instructor move around to make sure all conversation is on task.

Another simple procedure is to have the class move into groups of four. Provide the groups with a topic for discussion. The groups may or may not report to the whole class when the discussion has been completed. This is a wonderful way to review the material which was covered in lectures, somethings which the older students are saying is essential for good learning and which they say instructors consistently forget to do. Again, the groups need to be different each time the time monitor to keep a fairly rapid pace.

What kinds of topics should be given to these groups for a good collaborate learning experience? It depends on the instructional purpose. If the purpose is to ensure discussion of the application of information, then a problem solving question is in order. If the purpose is to encourage analytical thinking, the question could be defined for the difference or

similarity between two concepts. If the purpose is to encourage evaluate thinking, the students might be asked to list the merits or demerits of a theory. If the purpose is to help the students understand the relevance of information to their own lives, a problem solving task is again in order.

Very often collaborative learning can be done in a quick "buzz group". A buzz group may be exactly like the other procedures but the students move into it quickly and the discussion lasts for only two or three minutes. I have discovered one side benefit of a buzz group. If I am lecturing and I feel that the students are not involved in the lecture, I stop and switch to a buzz group. It gives me a much-needed breathing space and I find that the students are more attentive after such a session.

Often in small buzz groups even the most reticent student is willing and able to put ideas into words. When such students discover that they are listened to by the small group, they are also more willing to talk in the larger group. This is particularly true if, in circling around, the instructor hears one of these reticent students express an idea which the instructor can later share with the class, identifying it as that student's idea. That student is usually much more confident about speaking in a whole class discussion after such affirmation.

At the point at which the students have shown that they are able to work well in groups, the instructor may introduce larger problems for solving. The goal for true collaborative learning is to have the

students be able to work as a group in order to solve a well-planned, carefully thought out problem. The best problems are those which are interdisciplinary, requiring prior knowledge from other courses and from other disciplines for their solution. The instructor is no longer the person who provides the student with answers in the form of lectures and notes, but rather serves as the students' guide in order to stimulate the learning process and indicate different directions that the students might consider.

In a traditional setting, problem-based learning may occur along side of lectures. Groups of students within a class may be given a problem to work on throughout the course, meeting with the instructor from time to time at different stages in the work. In such a situation, early in the course all students will need instruction concerning the steps they must go through in solving problems. The instructor may not assume that the students already know such steps.

Ordinarily, the first step in solving problems is for the students in the group to discuss the problem in order to ensure that all of the concepts used in the formulation are clear to everyone in the group. When there is sufficient clarity concerning the concepts, the students make an inventory of the knowledge which group members already have concerning the subject.

At this point a brainstorming session is in order, with individual students putting forward hypotheses concerning the subject. The purpose of this brainstorming session is to allow different aspects of

the problem to emerge and to encourage new questions to arise.

Next the group comes to a consensus concerning which aspects need further study and arrangements are made for doing that study. With that decision, the first meeting of the group ends. In the traditional setting, it is important to have this initial meeting during class time. Later meetings can be held outside of class.

At this point the students have their individual assignments from the group and set about completing their assigned work. At the next group meeting the individual findings are presented to the group. The group discusses the findings and determines whether the material studied has provided sufficient clarity for solving the problem. In most cases, the group decision will be that new questions have risen and so more information is needed. New individual assignments are made. The presence of the instructor at this meeting is essential in order to prevent the group from accepting easy solutions based on very little evidence.

Not only must sufficient evidence be cited for any judgment, it is essential that students present their reasons for valuing that evidence. They must be made aware that when they cite evidence, the evidence must be based on respected research and be in keeping with their own world-and-life views. Since the students in the group may be approaching the problem from different perspectives, consensus as to the solution for that problem might not be possible. In that case, the group may provide alternative solutions, describing

the evidence and perspective on which each solution has been based.

At the end of the course the groups report to the class concerning their problem, the procedure they followed in solving the problem, the solution or solutions, the evidence on which solutions are based, and the reasons for valuing that evidence. The report to the class is essential because a great deal of learning takes place not only through listening to the presentation but by the group making the presentation and responding to questions which arise in the class.

This kind of learning is very demanding of students. It is far easier to listen to lectures and memorize notes. But in the process of doing collaborative learning, students learn to take responsibility for their own learning and to manage to organize their own learning. This kind of learning provides training in problem solving skills which can reap life long benefits.

Collaborative learning models change the atmosphere of the typical classroom because they change the role of the faculty member from one of authority and source of knowledge to one of mentor and guide. Such models may frighten faculty members who are accustomed to a more traditional approach to instruction, but they also challenge instructors to examine their goals and practices. Most university faculty have never studied the role of learning in higher education. They have never been shown how to teach more effectively, in ways that are more involving than traditional didactic instruction.

When these faculty members come to recognize that collaborative learning experiences have profound effects upon students' cognitive, social, and ethical development many of them will be willing to face the demands and challenges to used these new instructional strategies.

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Data Collection in a College Reading Course

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Abstract

The Learning Center at Missouri Southern State College maintains a system of data collection and analysis for all students enrolling in the College Reading Techniques course. The author discusses the difficulties and limitations of this system and presents some trends found in the three years of study.

Since the fall of 1984, four hundred and twenty students have enrolled in the College Reading Techniques course taught at Missouri Southern State College, Joplin, Missouri. This is a 2-credit hour, graded course offered through the Learning Center. While not limited to a "marginal student" population, it has ben designed to assist freshmen in the transition to post-secondary education.

Students are initially screened on the basis of ACT scores. Those scoring 14 or below on the English/Social Studies combination are encouraged to take the course. The Nelson-Denny Reading Test is also given and, characteristically, about 45% of this population score in the lower range. Essentially the course is designed to help students cope with the heavy reading demands of college courses and is therefore very content reading oriented.

Because the Learning Center wishes to remain informed of these students' progress, not just in their first semester but throughout their college years, a system of data collection needs to be maintained. Emphasis on teaching learning strategies that could be successfully used in content courses necessarily precludes examining pre-post reading scores alone.

The following are basic questions addressed:

1. How do the student who successfully complete the course with a grade of C or above compare with those who do not complete with an average grade?

2. How do students who complete the course compare with those who do not?

3. Of those who successfully complete the course, how many are still enrolled, how many obtain a GPA of 2.000 or better?

The reading instructors utilize the college's main frame computer system and the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences for statistical analysis. The following data is entered for each student:
ACT Composite
ACT Combination score English & Social Studies
Pre-Post Nelson Denny reading scores
Hours attempted
Hours completed
GPA
Grade in reading course

Reading course status:

1) completed the course
2) dropped the course
3) did not complete but did not drop
4) withdrew from college

Data is updated on a semester basis according to those students who are enrolled at the college, hours attempted, hours completed and GPA.

Tables A, B and C show the result of this data collection.

Table A - Reading 84

Totals:
74 enrolled
65 completed course
2 graduated with A.A. degrees
54%(completed course; N=63) GPA 2.000
43%(completed course) 4th year of enrollment at MSSC

Table B - Reading 85

Totals:
194 enrolled
159 completed course
52% (completed course; N=159) GPA 2.000
46% (completed course) 3rd year of enrollment at MSSC

Table C - Reading 86

Totals: 152 enrolled
110 completed course
56% (completed course; N=110)
GPA 2.000
60% (completed course) 2nd year
of enrollment at MSSC

It can be seen that over 50% of those completing the course obtain a GPA of 2.000 or better. Students who enrolled and completed the course during the 1984 fall term are now in their 4th year of college. Of that group 43% are still enrolled at the college, while some may have transferred to other schools.

While extensive study has not been made on those students who fail to complete the course, it seems that they frequently complete fewer hours, drop out of school or are placed on academic probation. Reasons for dropping out of college are frequently multiple and are not easily determined by college officials.

On the other hand, no level of ACT score or Nelson Denny Reading Test score has clearly indicated either success or failure in this course. It would seem that motivation and persistence overshadow test scores in this respect.

There are several difficulties in maintaining this type of data collection.

1. The computer system and computer statistical program must be learned and revised when necessary.
2. The nature and scope of the data collection

may change.

3. The initiation and maintenance of the data collection is time consuming.
4. The absence of baseline data or control groups make analysis problematic.

Often, this type of data collection depends in part upon familiarity with the use of the institution's computer system in addition to learning how to use a computer statistical program and how to analyze the output. This is time consuming in itself and any revisions in either system must be incorporated. However, updating the data collection requires less time after they system has essentially been debugged.

Another complication in examining this data is that no direct baseline data had been collected prior to the initiation of this program. While little can be done to alleviate this circumstance, all 1987 freshmen who pre-registered for the fall term completed the Nelson Denny Reading Tests so some information may be drawn from investigating the success of students who obtained acceptable ACT scores but who may have had low reading scores.

According to this data, the students who do not successfully completed the course obtain a lower GPA and are less likely to continue to be enrolled at MSSC. Therefore, a control group who is denied enrollment in the course has not been initiated. The fact that data collection was begun congruent with the beginning the program, means that it has been subject to some changes as the program has been developed and refined.

Despite the difficulties involved in this type of research, it is still believed that a more realistic evaluation of student progress can be ascertained in this manner than can be made from pre-post test scores alone.

The Three R's in Learning Support Center

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Abstract

This paper discusses the unique Learning Support Center (LSC) program at Taylor University, a private liberal arts college of 1,5000 students in Upland, IN. In this LSC, reading, writing, and mathematics professionals add three nontraditional Rs--resources, retention, and renewal philosophies--to the traditional three Rs in order to reach students.

College educators today ask questions ranging from, Why can't students be like they used to be? to, Why did this student come to college? While some college professors occupy their time debating and scrutinizing the philosophical whys of the present-day dilemma, learning center personnel puzzle the practical whys of Johnny's inability to write a paragraph, outline a chapter, or divide fractions.

Students like Johnny who have not responded to traditional teaching techniques challenge us because they bring a host of negative attitudes and insecurities

into our centers. At the Learning Support Center (LSC) we employ three nontraditional R's--resources, retention and renewal philosophies--in addition to the foundational three R's (Fig. 1) to reach these students.

RESOURCES. To reach students who have not responded to traditional teaching techniques, we provide four types of resources: state-or-the-art equipment, qualified personnel, varied services, and stable university programs.

In the spring of 1986, the LSC moved from a crowded two-room center to a brand new facility, the south wing of the $5,500,000, 61,000 sq. ft. Zondervan Library (Fig. 2). With the new facility came added responsibilities and challenges; moreover, the character of the center changed. No longer was this LSC "our little niche" in the university. It transformed into a skills center plus when a music listening center, a 49-seat audiovisual classroom, a 27-terminal microcomputer lab, and shelves of teacher education materials came under the auspices of the LSC. Currently, the LSC contains $186,000 worth of equipment (see Fig. 3).

Although this equipment is a valuable resource, personnel ranks as our most precious asset (Fig. 4). Operating as a department under the Academic Affairs Office, the LSC staff consists of

-Director of LSC. Full-time position. Supervises the Center and teaches reading and study skills. Reports to the library director.

-Technician. Full-time position. Assumes responsibility for the equipment.

-Instructional Resource Coordinator. Part-time position. Works part time in the LSC and part time in Information Services. In the LSC, promotes computer literacy.
-Coordinator of LSC Math Programs. Full-time position. Oversees the math program and two math tutors. Teaches mathematics and study skills.
-LSC Assistant. Full-time secretarial position.
-Director of Writing Lab. Part-time position. Supervises the Writing Lab and four tutors. Teaches writing classes. In addition, fifteen work-study students work 103 hours in various areas of the Center.

This staff provides the following service (Fig. 5) to the university:
-Instructional Computing Services. Offers instruction in the use of computing tools and other information resources.
-Collection Development Services. Houses teacher education materials such as textbooks, filmstrips, records and software.
-General Education Support Services. Provides alternate educational experiences in the required general education areas of speech, writing, computer literacy, and mathematics.
-Preview Services. VCRs, slide projectors, filmstrip projectors, PCs, and cassette recorders available for previewing library materials.
-Special Student Services. Notetaking and test-taking assistance for handicapped students.
-Microcomputer Services. 27-terminal microcomputer lab for educational purposes.

-Developmental Course Work Services. Offers study-skill, reading, and mathematics courses.
-A-V Classroom Services. Classroom for supplemental instruction requiring VHS recorder, 3/4" Umatic player, video laser disk player, and high fidelity sound.

Ongoing support strengthens our program, and we are privileged to have our equipment, personnel, and services resources backed by four university structures: faculty committees, the general education program, the Testing Office, and Student Development. Two faculty committees, Instructional Resources and Skills Proficiency, direct policy making, give input on daily operations of the Center, and support financial needs. Figure 6 describes these committees' functions and composition as listed in the Taylor University Faculty Handbook. Second, the general education program, which requires students to demonstrate proficiency in writing, mathematics, computer literacy, and speech, monitors and motivates student progress. Third, the Testing Office scores learning styles, writing samples, and math proficiency testing. Special situations and retesting of students in a short period of time helps LSC personnel perform their jobs better. Finally, Student Development areas of career development and residence hall life assist the Center. Occasionally we call on Career Development to help students set realistic job goals and to identify specific job skills. This goal-setting and skill identification aids the student in seeing his work as relevant. Likewise, dorm directors provide extra attention by counseling or mapping out a plan of success for students.

RETENTION. The second R in our LSC is retention. In the good ol' days, the first semester freshman year served as a flunking out period for students who "didn't belong." Courses like English composition earned the reputation of being a flunk-out course. Nevertheless, sagging enrollments and declining pool of college-age students in the late 70's and 80's altered this "flunk-out mentality" as colleges realized the need to renovate their philosophies about freshmen. Retention programs, enhanced by academic counselors, advising programs, and learning centers, blossomed. And the admissions counselor's job became more than one of getting students to college; keeping them on campus became top priority. Admissions offices today recruit graduates, not freshmen.

Like other universities, Taylor wants to retain its 15,000 student body--especially those high-risk students to whom the LSC caters. To accomplish this task, we direct a retention assistance program, aid in academic probation, and provide peer tutoring.

Taylor's Retention Assistance Program (RAP), boasting a 70% success rate, groups 25 high-risk students together in the same course schedule and provides them with a special academic advisor. Each fall, RAP students are placed in one content area class such as US History, 100-level sociology, or freshman-level general education required course in order to guide and monitor their study habits and progress. Students also enroll in a study skills course, Applied Learning Techniques, in which they grasp material

according to their learning style. An upperclassman hired to take notes in the content area class and to hold study sessions with the RAP students provides additional accountability and individualized assistance.

Providing assistance in the area of academic probation is another way we attempt to retain students, and the LSC works closely with the assistant dean of academic affairs in this regard. The assistant dean of academic affairs and the LSC director not only correspond with students in academic trouble, but they also keep each other updated on current happenings through informal phone calls and memos. Furthermore, after the Records Office circulates a midterm list of students receiving Ds or Fs, the LSC director contacts each student by letter and urges him to come to the Center for assistance. This letter informs the student of LSC services and encourages him to consider tutoring.

Peer tutoring from trained upperclassmen, provided by the math lab and writing lab, is the third way we assist in the retention process. While many of the clients these labs attract come from core math or writing courses, several athletic study table and across the disciplines students seek help. In addition to tutoring, the Writing Lab offers six, half-hour evening workshops on writing topics per semester. Tutors also take condensed, ten-minute versions of these workshops into courses across the disciplines.

RENEWAL. Renewal of student motivation, renewal of student responsibility, and renewal of a confident self-image are top priorities as we teach the three R's.

In the LSC, we seek to help students achieve success in developmental reading, writing, and mathematics to make success more likely in other areas of college study. Individual, small group, and full-size class instruction using face-to-face as well as mediated learning techniques are employed. We attempt to assess the learning style of each student and adapt to it with a variety of approaches.

Many students come to the Center having had few previous successful learning experiences. Convinced that they simply cannot find 5% of $20, write a comparison/contrast paper, or extract meaning a USA Today article, they bring with them blocks to learning built up over years of previous negative experiences in school. Our goal is to help them learn that they can overcome these difficulties, that strategies for learning when used will help them succeed. In succeeding, they gain confidence in themselves as adequate learners. The positive emotions generated by such experiences lead students to greet future learning experiences with a bit more enthusiasm.

Therefore, based on what we know about our clientele, we endorse two philosophies of renewal in the LSC:

1) To experience success in learning. Learning, whether individualized with a tutor or in small classes, provides students with opportunities for one-on-one encounters with instructors and peers and promotes communication as the learning proceeds unit by unit and the student masters the material. Small group

settings make it possible for instructors to detect quickly any lack of understanding by individual learners and to spot positive expressions such as when a student understands a math or writing concept for the first time. An instructor cannot help but become involved in the exhilaration of a student's exclamation: "Now I understand!"

2) To relate success strategies to other courses. Beyond the formal skills courses we teach in the Center, we offer support to students in their other courses of study. Sometimes our faculty or tutors will sit with students and help them outline a chapter or discover how to take an exam successfully. We keep in regular contact with athletic coaches and advisors of minority and international students to offer help to any students with special learning needs. In addition, we make presentations in various academic departments to discuss ways in which we can help students from those disciplines succeed more fully in their studies.

The LSC not only helps students learn certain academic content and develop certain learning skills, but it also rekindles the glow of success that students feel when they set for themselves some new learning goals and go on to achieve them. We believe that if a student can be renewed to the same eager, childlike creature he once was when he entered school, the world of learning is opened to him. At Taylor, we've found that nontraditional R's like resources, retention and renewal philosophies firmly based on the traditional three R's do just that.

Committees Associated With Learning Support Center

There are two committees that have input concerning the policies and operation of Learning Support Center. They are listed below.

Instructional Resources Committee

a. Organization
   (1) Chairperson, selected annually by the committee from its elected faculty members
   (2) Associate vice president for academic affairs
   (3) Directors of the information system, learning resources center, learning support center, library, and educational television
   (4) Director of research
   (5) Four faculty members from different divisions elected by the faculty for three-year terms, one the first year, one the second year, and two the third year
   (6) Three students

b. Duties
   (1) To participate when appropriate in the formulation of policy regarding services rendered by the information systems, learning resources center, learning skills center, library, and educational television
   (2) To make recommendations to the vice president for academic affairs and to the faculty regarding improvement, extension, and development of the services and facilities of these resource areas

(3) To assist the resource areas with budgetary matters when appropriate

Skills Proficiency Committee

a. Organization

(1) Chairperson, elected from among the committee members

(2) Director of general education

(3) Director of the learning support center

(4) Director of writing

(5) Director of testing

(6) Three faculty members, one each from the departments of mathematics, communication arts, and information sciences elected by faculty in those areas for three-year terms, the terms to be staggered so that no more than one of these offices will become vacant each year

(7) One faculty member-at-large elected by the faculty for a three-year term

b. Duties

(1) To work with the departments of communication arts, English, information sciences, mathematics, and the Testing Office to identify entering freshmen and transfer students who need remedial work

(2) To determine remedies for those students whose deficiencies continue beyond the freshmen level writing courses

(3) To assist the director of general education in decisions about acceptance, evaluation, and effectiveness of WR (writing component) and SP (speech

component) courses

(4) To respond to the greater concerns of basic skills proficiency that confront the university through the presence of students with special needs at Taylor University

(5) To assist the director of learning support center in identifying students in the other skills not required for graduation but necessary for success in college: reading, learning and listening.

Army Subsidizes Improvement in the 3R's

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Abstract

In this article the authors describe how the reading needs of cadets in today's modern army are being met in the Enhanced Skills Training Program at Lincoln University. The skills enhancement program at Lincoln is part of the Military Science Department staffed by civilian faculty members from English and Mathematics departments.

After almost two semesters, we are beginning to get used to the strange looks we receive from people who ask what department we work in. When we answer, "Military Science," some are visibly puzzled, some chuckle, and some are simply dumbfounded. We can see them wondering whether or not a salute is in order, and whether we have forgotten to wear our uniforms that day, or, if like the Catholic nuns, military personnel have finally been given leave to dress like civilians. If the questioner is sufficiently intrigued and stays long enough for an explanation, we

are able to account for our presence in the Military Science building.

No one was more surprised than the ROTC cadets themselves when we opened our office doors on the second floor of New Memorial Hall. Accustomed to instructors garbed in Army green and offering courses under such titles as Introduction to Tactics and Operations, and Fundamentals and Dynamics of the Military Team, these students did not quite know how to react to three obviously non-military females newly arrived to instruct them in, of all things reading, English, and mathematics. Their reactions were varied, but by far the most common was, "I don't need any of those; I've already taken all of them that I have to."

Not so, says the Army.

Today's ROTC cadet faces a military career that is not only highly competitive but demands above-average communication and math skills. To meet these needs, the Army invited historically Black colleges with ROTC programs to apply for funding to establish skill enhancement programs within their Military Science departments. Lincoln University's proposal was written in 1984-85 by English and mathematics faculty members and was accepted by the Army in August, 1985. Identified as the Enhanced Skill Training Program, the three new courses offer all L.U. ROTC cadets an opportunity to increase their proficiency in reading, English, and math.

Eighteen other historically black colleges received funds for similar programs. Enrollment in the skills programs varies from 26 to over 200. Lincoln's contract number for the first year was 120 students. Besides variations in enrollment, the programs differ among the schools. Each school developed its own courses following guidelines established by the Army. At some schools, no credit tutoring is offered while at others, like Lincoln, credit courses are available. At Lincoln, 0 credit lab courses are limited to those students who have taken a credit course but whose final score on the standardized test still does not meet the Army's requirements.

Desirable features of Lincoln's skill enhancement courses include small classes, much individual attention, and for English and reading, free books. Each instructor is also available for 20 hours per week of tutoring. When students continue in the 0 credit lab, there is no tuition fee, all books and materials are provided, and all instruction is individually planned for each student.

The three credit courses each follow Army guidelines. The stated purpose of ROTC College Level Reading is to strengthen and enhance the reading skills which are necessary for successful on-duty reading requirements of the Army. To be eligible for this 3-hour credit course, cadets must have tested out of or successfully completed Lincoln's no-credit Reading and Study Skills Program. Each fall, all eligible cadets are tested with the Nelson-Denny Reading Test, form E, and those who score at the sixth

stanine or below must enroll in the reading course unless excused by the Professor of Military Science.

The course emphasizes vocabulary skills, factual and inferential comprehension, critical analysis, problem solving skills, and reading rate. Brief lectures and demonstrations are used to introduce each skill, but the primary instructional technique is directed reading practice using military reading materials, assigned texts, and college textbooks chosen by the students.

To develop efficient strategies for reading military materials, the instructor uses some reading assignments from the military science classes to teach vocabulary, recognition of main ideas and significant details, summarizing, and outlining. Also, students are periodically asked to read and report on articles of their choice from military publications such as Army magazine, Field Artillery Journal, and the Army Times. As students learn about techniques for reading college textbooks, they also complete application exercises with the Military Qualifications Standards Manual. Besides the vocabulary and comprehension skill improvement activities often found in college developmental programs, special attention is given to reading and writing analogies, solving spatial problems, map reading, and other verbal reasoning problems. Competency in these skills is needed immediately upon commissioning when cadets attend Officers Basic Course. Individual tutoring for students enrolled in ROTC Reading is provided as needed. Cadets must continue working with the instructor until they score at the fifth stanine of the

Nelson- Denny Reading Test, Form F, or are excused by the P.M.S.

The purpose of Standard English for ROTC Cadets is, as the Army conceived it, very broad. Specifications for the course begin with the very basics of English grammar and mechanics, and end with writing business letters and resumes. The standardized instrument chosen by the Army to measure each cadet's competency in English skills is the Missouri College English Test. This exam is given at the beginning of each fall semester, and any cadet scoring below the 5th stanine, and who has completed Lincoln's two basic composition courses, is required to enroll in Standard English for ROTC Cadets unless excused by the P.M.S.

During the first eight weeks of the course, the primary emphasis is on improving the students' grammatical and mechanical skills. In accordance with the Army's specifications, the students review grammar, punctuation, spelling, and capitalization. They do this through workbook exercises, hand-outs prepared by the instructor, and by practice in spotting errors in their own writing and that of their peers. Since a major portion of the Missouri College English Test asks students to identify grammar, punctuation, spelling and capitalization errors within essays, this is something that the students practice throughout the semester.

The second eight weeks of the course emphasizes writing. Again, the Army is specific about its requirements. The description of the writing

portion of the course begins with writing a clear topic sentence, continues through paragraph development and ends with writing business letters and resumes.

Beside learning to write clear and effective paragraphs and studying the format of business letters and resumes, the cadets write weekly to the instructor, providing her with an on-going dialogues with each student. They are free to write on any subject, voice any complaint, or make suggestions. She, in turn, provides written feedback on their writing and their mechanics, but does not grade these weekly writings.

In addition to the 50-minute class periods, students are encouraged to come for individual tutoring. And those who do not score in the fourth stanine at the end of one semester sign up for the 0-credit English lab. Students continue in lab until they make the stanine or are excused by the P.M.S.

The Descriptive Test of Mathematics is the standardized instrument used to evaluate the cadets' math skills. Those who score below the 5th stanine on the intermediate algebra portion sign into ROTC Intermediate Algebra. If they have already and Intermediate Algebra at Lincoln and made a C or above, they sign up for a 0-credit lab and work on refreshing their skills. If they made a D or F, they can retake ROTC Math 111 for credit. Those who score below the 5th stanine on the elementary algebra section of the test enroll in a 0-credit lab until their skills are such that they can take Math 111.

One innovative feature of the E.S.T. math course is that the instructor utilizes writing to teach math processes. She teaches students not only to solve problems but to explain in writing the method they have used in approaching the problem. The students derive several benefits from this. First of all, it forces them to think of math concretely and not just abstractly. When they write out in complete sentences the process they use to solve problems, they more fully visualize and understand that process than when they merely deal with numbers on a page. Secondly, writing for a math class reinforces the concept stressed in all three E.S.T. courses: that communication skills are vital for an Army career. To further strengthen this point, the instructor requires all her students to keep a weekly journal detailing their progress and problems in math. At the end of each week, they turn these in and she responds in writing to their comments.

Although we still get complaints from cadets who object to three more courses added to their already heavy schedules, we have also begun to hear more favorable remarks. Some tell us that their work in our courses has paid off for them in other areas and classes. All of them appreciate the free tutoring we offer, and they frequently take advantage of it.

Our large office on the second floor of New Memorial Hall is now a popular place with the students. They know they will always find help, support, and sometimes even food and drink. And some have seen tangible proof of our efforts and theirs in their improved test scores. For this reason, they are becoming more and more committed to this program.

The Army also has given us a vote of confidence: despite budget cuts initiated by the Gramm-Rudman bill, funding for our program will continue for at least another year. Within that time, a new corp of cadets will come to New Memorial Hall for their Fundamentals of Leadership and Management class, and they will probably be as surprised as those who came before them when they discover that proficiency in reading, English, and math is also an Army requirement. Our task is to show them why.